The Nation

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Summary of the News

Hopes of a satisfactory adjustment of the submarine issue between the United States and Germany were raised high by the publication on September 1 of an official communication addressed by Ambassador Bernstorff to Secretary of State Lansing. The German Ambassador's statement, evoked by the controversy over the sinking of the Arabic, contained the following passage: "Liners will not be sunk by our submarines without warning, and without safety of the lives of non-combatants, provided that the liners do not try to escape or offer resistance." Count von Bernstorff added that the policy of the German Government as outlined in his statement had been decided upon prior to the sinking of the Arabic. Secretary Lansing, on behalf of the Administration, contented himself with a brief, formal expression of satisfaction with the Ambassador's communication. By the daily press the statement was generally hailed as presaging a complete settlement of the issue with Germany.

Apparently rejoicings were premature. Three days after the publication of Ambassador Bernstorff's statement, on the evening of September 4, the Allan Line steamship Hesperian, with three hundred and fifty passengers and a crew of three hundred aboard, bound from Liverpool to Montreal, was torpedoed off the Irish coast. According to all information attainable as we write, there is little room for doubt that the explosion which destroyed the vessel was caused, not by a mine, but by a torpedo from a German submarine. All accounts also agree that the attack was made without warning. Early reports asserted that a 4.7 inch rifle was mounted in the bows of the vessel, but doubt as to the truth of these reports has been expressed by officers of the line, and, as we write, the matter remains in doubt. In any case, it is pointed out that the carrying of guns on merchant vessels for purposes of defence is permissible by international law and by the laws of the United States. The Hesperian did not immediately sink, but efforts to tow her into Queenstown failed, the ship foundering thirty-four hours after she was hit. The majority of the passengers and crew were landed safely at Queenstown, those now reported missing numbering twenty-six. The only Americans aboard were three members of the crew.

After the lull in activity which we noted last week, German submarines have returned with zest to the attack. In addition to the liner which, according to Count von Bernstorff, was to have been exempt, seventeen vessels have been reported torpedoed since we wrote last, fourteen British, one Norwegian, one Swedish, and one Danish. Rumors which have come of late from so many sources as to demand credence, that the submarine campaign has proved exceedingly costly to Germany, were in a measure confirmed by the publication in the New York *Times* of September 4 of information contained in a personal letter written by Sir John French to the effect that up to three weeks ago forty-two German submarines had been sunk or captured by the Allies. In the Dardanelles four Turkish transports were reported sunk last week by a British submarine. The sinking of a British transport was also reported from German sources, but the report lacks confirmation and may refer to the loss of the Royal Edward last month.

The difficult situation existing between this country and the Teutonic allies can hardly be said to have been improved by the admission of Dr. Dumba, the Austro-Hungarian Ambassador, that he has engaged in various activities calculated to prejudice a legitimate American industry. The revelation of the Austrian Ambassador's enterprise came through the detention by the British authorities at Falmouth last week of James J. Archibald, an American newspaper correspondent, who was carrying dispatches from Dr. Dumba to Foreign Minister Burian, at Vienna. In these dispatches, it is asserted, was evidence that the Ambassador was engaged on a scheme for crippling by means of strikes the industry in munitions in this country. The following passage is quoted from the correspondence: "We can disorganize and hold up for months, if not entirely prevent, the manufacture of munitions in Bethlehem and the Middle West, which, in the opinion of the German Military Attaché, is of great importance and amply outweighs the expenditure of the money involved." The Ambassador issued an explanatory statement, published in Monday's papers, which, by the press at least, has not generally been accepted as satisfactory. He had an interview on the subject with Secretary Lansing on Tuesday, the result of which has not, as we write, been made public.

The situation in the Balkans remains delicately balanced. Reports last week indicated that Servia was at last prepared to meet the wishes of the Allies in the way of territoral concessions to Bulgaria, only insisting that she retain direct means of communication with Greece. The Greek Parliament, after an all-night session, adjourned on September 5 until October 28, without any statement in regard to foreign policy having been made by Premier Venizelos.

According to the Overseas News Agency, by wireless to Sayville on September 1, the Russian losses in the eastern campaign since May 2 have been 300,000 in killed and wounded and 1,100,000 prisoners.

On September 2 Cardinal Gibbons had an interview with the President, in the course of which it is safe only to say that the European situation and the prospects of peace were discussed. The Cardinal, it is understood, was the bearer of some kind of message from the Pope to President Wilson, but it was expressly denied by the Vatican on September 4 that the Pope sent any special message to the President, by which it may presumably be inferred that the communication, whatever its nature, was oral and informal. It is expected that a statement in regard to the interview will be made public shortly.

President Wilson caused to be made public on September 2 the text of the letters he wrote under date of July 21 to the Secretaries of War and the Navy in regard to formulating a programme of national defence.

Instructions were sent to Ambassador Page on September 3 directing him to press for an immediate answer to inquiries recently addressed by Washington to the British Foreign Office in regard to the method to be adopted to obtain the release of American-owned goods of German origin, valued at more than $150,000,000, which are at present delayed at Rotterdam. An official statement by the State Department on the general situation was published in the papers of September 4.

Dispatches from Berlin of September 4 stated that there was every indication that the subscription to the new German war loan would be highly successful.

The situation in Mexico can hardly be said to have improved. Trouble of a somewhat serious nature has developed on the Texas border as a result of the firing by Mexicans on American troops and of raids across the line. A skirmish, in which one American trooper was wounded and several Mexicans were killed, took place on Saturday of last week, and American troops are massed on the border to repel any renewed attempt at invasion. From dispatches from Washington on Tuesday there appears to be some suspicion that the recent raids have had the support of Carranza, a considerable body of whose forces is said to be concentrated on the Mexican side of the border.

Rear-Admiral William B. Caperton, commanding the American forces in Hayti and Haytian waters, issued a formal proclamation on September 3, declaring martial law in Port au Prince and the immediate territory occupied by the forces under his command. The text of the proclamation was published in the papers of September 5.

According to a dispatch by the Associated Press under date of September 6, "to obviate the necessity of again obtaining the recognition of foreign nations" the Chinese Government "has decided tentatively to maintain the form of a republic instead of restoring a monarchy, but to make the Presidency permanent and hereditary." This information, it was stated, came from "high official quarters."

The New York State Constitutional Convention adjourned on September 4, after having passed thirty-three articles and amendments to the State Constitution. Adjournment was taken until this (Thursday) evening, when the delegates to the Convention are to return for twenty-four hours in order to pass formally upon the State Constitution, as amended, in readiness for its submission to a vote of the people on November 2.

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The Week

No error could be more serious than that of looking upon the great achievement of American diplomacy recorded in Count Bernstorff's note to Secretary Lansing as a victory on a mere punctilio, a satisfaction like that of the duellist upon a "point of honor." The principle for which we were contending, though it happened to be embodied in a form which, in the concrete, might be made to appear as of trifling character, was a principle than which nothing could be more vital. The carrying on of commerce upon the high seas—even commerce in contraband—without peril to the lives either of crew or of passengers, is one of the few privileges of international intercourse in time of war which have been held intact and unchallenged for generations. In setting at naught this simple and unmistakable principle, Germany justly earned the title of "an outlaw nation"; and it was to vindicate and reëstablish the law of nations in a vital point that we interposed our veto. The crime of the Lusitania massacre did not consist in the fact that there were Americans among the murdered; but it was owing to that fact that we had specific ground for intervening on our own account—intervening without making ourselves the judges of other nations in their relation to one another. Had the matter, however, concerned merely the slight advantages or opportunities immediately at risk for Americans, we could not have nerved ourselves to the point of insisting on our rights at the peril of the bare possibility of war with a nation with which ours desired to be at peace. Our case was impregnable in law and justice; but what made it great and momentous was that it was in principle the case of international right, the case of civilized warfare against unshackled terrorism—in a word, the case of civilization itself.

The gravity of the latest allegations of Austro-German activity in attempting to hamper the manufacture of munitions in this country is hardly lessened by Ambassador Dumba's explanation. His statement, in the first place, is inadequate. Accused of having written that "we can disorganize and hold up for months, if not entirely prevent, the manufacture of munitions in Bethlehem and the Middle West," he explains that he merely wished to induce many blindly laboring Austro-Germans in American munitions industries to throw down their tools. Did the Ambassador really think that to do this would dislocate and perhaps entirely stop the export of war materials from the regions named? The editor of an Hungarian newspaper remarks that the stoppage of work by every laborer of Austro-Hungarian blood in the land could not have had such an effect, as these men would be easily replaced by those of other nationalities. If Dr. Dumba wrote what is alleged, he should have realized that many would think him under suspicion of having planned more far-reaching steps to attain so great an end. He cannot too soon establish the fact that it was an unexceptionable moral propaganda he had under contemplation. If he appealed to the individual Austro-German through his newspapers or other organs of information, well and good. Any one may sympathize with his desire to make such men see the wrong they were doing their native land. But he must make it plain that he intended countenancing no recourse to paid agitators who would work on masses of men through labor leaders, often against the wishes of individuals. An effort to call out laborers in an organized way, by the use of money paid to men who had somehow gained influence over them, and under cover of questions foreign to the manufacture of munitions against the Central Powers, would be at once an interference with our civil order and our neutrality. Dr. Dumba ought to realize that there have been reports of such veiled and illegal activities, and that he lies under strong suspicion of being connected with them.

In short, while Dr. Dumba qualifies his plan as "a very open and direct method," its openness seems to have waited on the British search of his confidential agent's papers, and doubts are cast on its propriety by even the slight details he has given. He wished to carry on an educational campaign to withdraw his countrymen from a work the purpose of which they did not understand. Why did he not make a suitable announcement of the undertaking, whose hazy outline he now tries to rob of its suspicious appearance? He planned, he says, a labor bureau to obtain employment for his nationals when they had abandoned their work. In certain lights and to a certain extent this was proper enough; but the mobilization of Austro-German labor as a distinct body in this country can easily be carried too far. The sensitive state of our diplomatic relations with Germany and Austria-Hungary makes it imperative that Ambassador Dumba do his share towards clearing up the matter at once.

Some of the comments of the German press upon Count Bernstorff's guarantees to the United States have an unpleasant sound. The British writers who discounted German assurances and declared that the submarine warfare would undergo only the narrowest, most technical modifications, we thought sourly illiberal. They might now plead the utterances of the *Vossische Zeitung* and the *Tägliche Rundschau* in justification of their suspicions. If these journals had the direction of German naval policy, reparation for the Lusitania outrage would be unthought of. The sinking of the Arabic, pending the report of a submarine that will probably never come in, would be declared thoroughly justifiable. According to the *Vossische Zeitung*, ordinary merchant ships will not be spared in any circumstances, and any passenger ship that can be imagined to be manœuvring against a submarine will receive the shortest shrift. The *Tägliche Rundschau* thinks the relaxation of the submarine campaign a serious offset to the victories in the east. With views of this nature having currency in Germany, the Imperial Government ought to see the internal necessity for defining its position more unmistakably.

"There is small consolation in the events of the last few days," said our dear friend Herman Ridder, in his *Staats-Zeitung* last Thursday morning, "for those who were so eager to rush this country into war with Germany over the Lusitania and Arabic incidents." Well, that may be true enough; only we don't know of any considerable group either of individuals or of newspapers who were "eager to rush the country into war with Germany." On the other hand, we do know of a considerable group of newspapers, professing to represent a vast body of citizens of German nativity or descent, that is left by "the events of the last few days" in a position that is so ridiculous that any talk of "consolation" for them is simply out of the question. One may think of consolation for a man who has made a tragic blunder, even if it was a wicked one; but for a comic blunder there can be nothing but laughter. Where does von Bernstorff's announcement leave our super-Teutons of the German-American press, who thought the Lusitania and Arabic performances a mere matter of course, and protests against them an American impertinence? They didn't *quite* say this, of course, especially in the first shock of universal indignation over the Lusitania slaughter; but they soon drifted into a position so near to this as hardly to be distinguishable from it. And now they

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are left high and dry, with only von Tirpitz for company. It is a funny sight for Americans.

The overshadowing importance of Germany's change of heart in the matter of the submarines has entirely crowded into the background the latest "revelations" concerning Belgian diplomacy published by the *Norddeutsche Allgemeine Zeitung*. The German press has devoted much space to the subject, and while most of the leading papers think that the alleged evidences of British duplicity, manifested so long before the outbreak of the war, throw more or less light on the causes that led up to it, not one paper of any standing, so far as we know, pretends to believe that these "proofs" prove very much. A few short months ago the tone of the discussion concerning the subject would have been very different. Now, so able and important a paper as the Bremen *Weser-Zeitung*—one of the ablest in all Germany—speaks of the value of the Belgian documents with considerable restraint. The sum and substance of its remarks is: Germany cannot afford to disregard anything that sets her right in the eyes of the world, and every little bit helps. But what we wish to point out as really significant in the *Weser-Zeitung's* article is the admission that "it cannot be denied that Germany went into the war with a confession of guilt" ("Wir sind einmal mit einem Schuldbekenntnis in den Krieg gegangen"). To be sure, this refers to Bethmann-Hollweg's confession as to the violation of Belgian territory, but when German newspapers once begin to confess any guilt at all, there is no telling where they may stop.

No one is surprised that Washington remains calm in the midst of the fusillade of rumors about exchanges of shots across the Rio Grande; the gratifying element in this latest development is the continued calmness of the American public. But why this world of difference between our state of mind—or feeling—towards Mexico and the hair-trigger attitude we took towards Spain the best part of two decades ago? One reason is doubtless to be found in the different atmosphere at Washington. Nobody in the Cabinet now is talking as if a conflict were inevitable—and Congress is not in session. But a larger cause may lie in the view we hold of Mexico. If that unhappy country were a great Power, between whom and ourselves old rivalries, economic or political, or both, had created animosity that could be heated at any moment into irritation, then we might easily be having such a situation as would promptly have arisen between France and Germany at any time these fifty years as the result of corresponding rumors. Our cartoonists have correctly summed up the reality. Uncle Sam is annoyed rather than angry, because he realizes that his duty is double, being not merely the protection of his family against a neighbor's dog, but also such service as he can render the neighbor in putting restraint upon the animal.

Why panic should ever befall the inhabitants of this country is incomprehensible in the light of a single morning's headlines:

Daniels Planning for Huge Navy to Be Afloat by 1918.
American Solves Our Dye Problem.
Blues Win a Hill in Big Sham Battle.

If it is true that in three years we can build twenty-one battleships, twenty-two cruisers, several hundred destroyers and submarines, accomplishing in three-quarters of a Presidential term what the British or German navies would probably require half a dozen years to accomplish; and if it is true that the mastery of the dye industry, which Germany has been building up for fifty years, has been won by an American, and that production will begin "within about two weeks"; and if it is true that the Blues at Plattsburgh, consisting largely of business men fresh from the padded office chair, are wreaking havoc among the ranks of the United States regulars who make up the invading Red army, then it is plain that, no matter what national emergency presents itself, we can solve it anywhere from three times to three hundred times as fast as any other nation. Then why panic? Or can it be that the optimism of the headlines is to be taken just about as seriously as the panicky fear of the headlines? We imagine that President Wilson neither builds 200 warships in three years, nor yet sees German troops landing on Long Island early in 1916, but that somewhere between the extremes of foolish panic and foolish cock-crowing he searches for the truth.

When any one of our consular or commercial agents finds himself short of matter for a letter to the Department of Commerce, he puts on his hat, goes down the street, stops at any shop or office where he has not stopped on a similar errand recently, and primes himself to listen to a fresh tale of American stupidity. The latest such story happens to come from Panama. In May, there was a fire in Colon that burned out many business houses. A few weeks later one of the largest of these firms received by the same mail—thus dramatically was the scene staged—two letters, one from England, the other from New York. The letter from England showed none of the contempt for "natives" that forms an important ingredient of the British reputation, but on the contrary inquired solicitously about the effect of the fire, noted the additional burdens created for business in England by the war, and wound up with this practical expression of sympathy: "Give yourself no occasion for worry at the state of your account. We know how conditions are. Send on your orders, and they will be filled as usual and upon the usual credit terms." The New York letter began: "Owing to war conditions, we are compelled to curtail our lines of credit, and the terms in future will be——" If this were an isolated instance, it might be passed over; indeed, a commercial agent would know better than to report it. But it appears to be in keeping with the rule.

No indictment of Government wastefulness could be more emphatic than would be the approval by Congress of the proposal to abandon the partially completed improvements of the Missouri and Arkansas Rivers. Though it is the Board of Army Engineers which has reported them generally unsound, it is to be remembered that the projects involve so many considerations beyond those of an engineering nature that the Board is by no means a final authority. For years Congress has debated the desirability of carrying on by annual appropriations large rivers and harbors improvements, and has usually given the benefit of the doubt to those in charge of the pork-barrel. By virtue of the bill of last year, the Board not only has the direction of $20,000,000 to be spent immediately, but is authorized to report upon the desirability of continuing improvements already under contract, for which an additional $7,000,000 was appropriated under the Sundry Civil act. Its attitude of hostility promises a more critical examination of these projects in Washington this autumn than they have ever received. Whereas Middle Western interests have long maintained that steamboating would yet see a revival, and deep channels on the tributaries of the Mississippi be justified, there has always been a feeling that an impartial examination might condemn these improvements. The projects which have been or are being reëxamined by the Board call for an ultimate appropriation of $75,000,000, and there is talk of

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cutting off one-half. Every dollar saved of this, as of the lump appropriation for integral improvements, will be testimony to the wisdom of Senator Burton's plan for the employment of the expert army board.

What has become of the famous Republican team-play? Here is Theodore E. Burton, back from a Western trip, full of rosy visions of Republican success in 1916. Not an ordinary success, which the party might conceivably be content with after four years out in the cold, but a landslide. Victory, victory everywhere, is the burden of Burton's slogan. Let no one say that the ex-Senator is influenced in his forecast by the idea, popularly attributed to him, that it is about time for another President named Theodore. He merely reports in cold blood what his eyes have seen. But so does Gov. Gates, of rock-ribbed Republican Vermont. "If present conditions prevail in 1916," he confesses, "America will support the Administration." To see two Republicans divided like this is sad enough, but the melancholy spectacle is made worse by a third Republican, who adds his voice to the wrong side. Nobody has hitherto questioned the party devotion of Senator Sherman, of Illinois, who is also a candidate for the Republican nomination, but his praise of the President might at least be qualified by a hint that while Wilson is all right for 1915, it behooves the people to take a better man in 1916.

That steps may be taken simultaneously to simplify two important industrial problems is indicated by reports of a conference last week between the Government's dye expert and representatives of the Du Pont and General Chemical Companies. Both are manufacturers of chemical materials which are bases at once for explosives and for dyestuffs. Whereas the market for explosives is certain to witness a sudden collapse at the end of the war, the most earnest efforts are now being made to discover sources from which the bases for dyes can be permanently supplied to a strong domestic industry; and entrance into the field will permit those now turning out benzol, toluol, and naphthalene for Europe to preserve the hastily built plants that might otherwise have to be scrapped. Such a resource is probably but one of a number which the Government, if it meets a proper response from the industrial world, will be able to help develop. Want of coördination among several industries, and especially, those using the by-products of coke, with a failure to pay sufficient attention to modern methods and the work of the chemical expert, has been at the root of our dependence on Germany for dyes. There has been no lack of raw materials, and the Department of Commerce has firm ground for its confidence in the possibility of building up a stable native dye manufacture without such artificial aids as a tariff increase.

California is pluming herself upon the prosperity of the Panama-Pacific Exposition, its $1,200,000 of "mortgage indebtedness" having been paid off some weeks ago. Beside the St. Louis and Chicago fairs, the fiscal conduct of the Exposition has clearly been a shining success. Indeed, it has given a lesson to European managers. Some of the great exhibitions on the Continent have been almost disastrous, that of Vienna in 1873 having left a deficit of nearly $8,000,000, and that at Paris in 1900 having failed in spite of national and municipal gifts and the issue of admission tickets with numbers for lottery drawings attached. But the accounting of expositions is by no means standardized, and much of San Francisco's advantage may be only apparent. It has not yet paid back the appropriation of $5,000,000 authorized by the State or the equal amount given by the city; while the private citizens who subscribed $7,500,000 in capital stock are not likely to get it all back. The Exposition is now enjoying its most crowded season, and the total of admissions does not seem likely to surpass that of over 27,500,000 at Chicago.

The grand jury which has been sitting at Marietta, Ga., has at least succeeded in indicting all Cobb County. Given a community of the knavishly indifferent, to paraphrase Carlyle, how could zeal for justice be evolved from their united official action? Though succeeding grand juries are authorized to resume investigation if fresh evidence appears, Cobb County has in effect served notice on the country that the great majority of her citizens so approve of the lynching of Leo Frank that they are willing to let the crime sink into history unpunished. What is the country to do about it? This ending of the affair makes it plain that the one thing that can be done by better sentiment, North and South, is to push forward an educational campaign which shall revolutionize the entire attitude of communities like northern Georgia towards these anti-legal proceedings. The nation-wide interest aroused by the Frank case should make the time peculiarly propitious for a crusade against mob outbreaks, on a more organized plan than ever before.

Berlin's official estimate of the Russian losses since May 1 as 1,100,000 prisoners and 300,000 killed and wounded will raise the question how thoroughly the official German figures for prisoners must be accepted. During the entire conduct of the war it has been a fairly safe rule to accept official statements in dealing with the facts of victory and defeat, as true. It may be different when it comes to numbers. There are observers who have all along questioned the German figures for Russian prisoners. Hilaire Belloc in his review of the first year of the war squarely refuses to believe. He charges that Berlin has a way of duplicating captures and of including large numbers of civilians. Thus, writing in the early days of August, when by Berlin accounts the Russian prisoners in Galicia were nearly 700,000, Mr. Belloc places the number at 200,000. On the other hand, he estimates the Russian losses in killed and wounded at a million, whereas Berlin's estimate for a period longer by a month places them at only 300,000. If the truth lies somewhere between the two estimates, we believe that it lies much nearer Berlin's figures than Mr. Belloc's. Allowing for duplications and civilian prisoners, the Russian prisoners since the beginning of the great drive in May should come close to a million.

Berlin's figures are interesting in the light they throw on the probable total losses of Russia since the beginning of hostilities. These losses have been exaggerated. When one reads of nearly two million prisoners, the natural tendency is to allow for a proportionate loss in killed and wounded, and so obtain an enormous total. But it has been pointed out that if the Russian troops are captured with ease the casualties must be much smaller than in the obstinate fighting on the western front. This is confirmed by Berlin's estimate of 1,100,000 prisoners and 300,000 dead and wounded, in spite of the fact, as Berlin says, that the Russians saved their artillery "by recklessly sacrificing their infantry." Altogether, by Berlin's figures, Russia has lost about two million prisoners, and this ratio would give a total of only 600,000 casualties, or a total loss of 2,600,000. Allow for the savage fighting in the Carpathians and around Lodz and before Warsaw last winter, and it is still probable that Russia's total losses are less than 3,000,000 men, or not much above Germany's.

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THE HESPERIAN.

The sinking of the Hesperian has suddenly cast a cloud over the situation. That the cloud may be soon, and completely, dispelled is the earnest hope of the American people. The genuineness of their satisfaction over the clearing up of our dispute with Germany, so plainly promised by Count Bernstorff's note of a few days ago, was manifest. One reason for expecting that the sinking of the Hesperian will not prove to be the undoing of all this is the almost unthinkable outrageousness of the act, if it is an outrage at all. It is true that the Lusitania outrage also seemed unthinkable before it happened; but there is a vital difference. So far from Germany having promised at that time to respect the laws of war in her treatment of peaceful ships, she had expressly notified the world that she would set those laws at naught; the reason for confidence that the Lusitania was safe was that the world could not believe that Germany would carry the lawlessness and barbarism she had foreshadowed to their furthest possible limits. She herself, however, was in a position to say that she had done no more than she had threatened. But Count Bernstorff's note was a withdrawal of that threat, and an explicit promise of abstention from any repetition of the crime. If, therefore, the Hesperian was torpedoed without warning and without cause given by herself, Germany would be guilty of an immediate and shameless violation of a solemn written promise upon which the ink was hardly dry, made to a great neutral nation which had shown its sincere desire for a continuance of friendly relations with her. Until the facts have been brought out more thoroughly than is the case as yet, it is reasonable to suppose that an explanation will be forthcoming which will restore the conditions in which, during the past few days, we have been taking such keen satisfaction.

But, while it is sincerely to be hoped and expected that this latest disaster to an Atlantic liner will be accounted for in such a manner as to permit of the continuance of progress towards a complete settlement of the issue between this country and Germany, there is one result which ought unquestionably to follow from the occurrence. It is a sharp reminder of the incompleteness of the understanding that has thus far been arrived at. The brief note addressed by Ambassador Bernstorff to Secretary Lansing was in itself by no means free from doubt as to its interpretation, and moreover it did not profess to give more than a mere fragment of the communication which the Ambassador had received from the Imperial Government. What caused it to be received as almost tantamount to a settlement was not so much what it explicitly said as the spirit that seemed evidently behind it—a spirit indicated not only by what was contained in the note itself, but even more by the manner of Count Bernstorff's approach to Mr. Lansing, and by the extremely conciliatory character of the dispatch which the German Government sent to ours immediately upon receipt of the news of the sinking of the Arabic. On the face of it—what with the use of the word "liner," and what with the meagreness of the communication as a whole—the note of Count Bernstorff did not by any means cover all the ground involved in our contention for the safety of life upon merchant ships. But it was generally felt that the German Government had probably gone as far as could be expected in its first disavowal of a submarine policy by which it had set such great store; and that, while thus "saving its face" as far as possible in this communication, it would presently become clear that its yielding to our contentions was substantially complete.

The destruction of the Hesperian must bring sharply home to the country the necessity of a more solid basis than this for national assurance. The Administration has maintained a prudent reserve, indeed almost complete silence, on the subject. A few words of general satisfaction were all that Secretary Lansing permitted himself when the long-standing tension upon which the interest of the whole nation had been centred was suddenly relieved; and nothing has been added since, either by the Secretary or the President, to that brief comment. Accordingly the Administration will not be under any embarrassment whatever in any determination which the Hesperian incident may influence it to take as regards the nature of the assurances which it will accept as satisfying our demands, or as to the time during which it will be willing to wait for that fuller statement of the German position of which Count Bernstorff's note appeared to be merely a precursor. Even if it shall turn out that the sinking of the Hesperian was caused by a mine and not by a submarine, in which case the event has logically no connection with the dispute, it will still have served psychologically to sharpen the issue. We shall all be more anxious to-morrow than we were yesterday to get a clearer definition of where the matter stands than is given in Bernstorff's note; and the sooner it is obtained the less danger will there be of everything being upset by some new and startling occurrence.

SEDAN DAY ONCE MORE.

Forty-five years ago, when the news of Sedan and the fall of the French Empire reached this country, the event was hailed not only as a great military achievement, but as the triumph of a just cause. At that time the world did not know of Bismarck and the Ems telegram. But even if the Iron Chancellor's share in bringing about the war had been known, it is doubtful whether the sympathies of this neutral nation would have been radically different. The fundamental issues would have remained the same. The German states were fighting for the realization of their national unity against a Government whose basis was the Napoleonic tradition and whose prestige, now rapidly waning, had been nourished on foreign adventure and the glory of playing the arbiter of European destinies. The Napoleonic empire represented a dying tradition. Merely the revolt of the German people against French aspirations towards a European dictatorship would have been a service to civilization. But in itself the new German Empire marked the advent of a new force rich in potentialities. "In the interest of that orderly and intellectual progress of which the world now expects Germany to set the example," wrote E. L. Godkin in the *Nation* in September, 1870. In that month Germany stood forth as the conqueror of France and of liberal, neutral opinion.

On the same page that thus welcomed the German nation among the fraternity of the Powers the following words occur: "France has for sixty years sacrificed her peace, her liberty, her literature, and her art to the perfection of her military machine, and has rested satisfied with such influence as it gave her." Substitute Germany for France, and that is the indictment which the press of this neutral country hurled against a military power on the occasion of another Sedan Day, a year ago. During the first week of September, 1914, we in this country did not know how it stood with Germany's case in the trial by battle. We knew that the tide was running in her favor, but how near to success she was we did not know. The first wireless reports of German victories were only a few days old, and we were still under

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the spell of the Belgian episode. But if we were uncertain as to the precise inclination of the balance of victory we were under no doubts as to the swinging of the moral balance. It is no exaggeration to say that in neutral America the Kaiser was execrated as the prime mover in the calamitous war, as the violator of treaty rights, as the invader of a weak and neutral country.

Looking back in the fuller knowledge of later events we see that in Germany they were under no doubts as to where they stood in the test of war. They had beaten the Allied armies all along the line in the first pitched battles of the war, they were in close pursuit of the enemy, and on Sedan Day they were within striking distance of Paris. So confident were they of victory and a speedy end of the war that von Kluck, precisely on Sedan Day, broke off his march to Paris, and with superb disdain attempted the perilous feat of parading his army with flank exposed to the enemy's full front, in cheerful confidence of breaking that front and crushing all organized opposition. On September 3 the French Government fled from Paris after issuing an appeal to the country which rang like a cry of despair. We see now that the facts on September 2 warranted the German leaders in believing that they had won. Thus the German nation stood on Sedan Day a year ago, victorious in the field, disastrously beaten in the moral judgment of the world. At Berlin the latter circumstance was held of no account. Right would rally to the side of the victor, and if not, could be dispensed with.

Sedan Day in 1915 finds the military situation greatly altered. The victories over Russia are there to cheer the nation, and the firm hope in ultimate victory is still asserted. But even from the German point of view it is not such a triumph as seemed to lie in the lap of the Kaiser on September 2 a year ago. In beating down Russia at the end of more than a year of tremendous exertions and at the cost of untold sacrifices Germany has beaten only one of a circle of formidable opponents. To bring about the ultimate victory that Germany expects, still greater sacrifices are confessedly needed. To enter into a balancing of precise gain and loss is not necessary here. In actual gain, it is a question whether Germany's conquests in Russia and the west atone for the loss of her merchant fleet, her colonies, her world trade, and the destruction of the splendid industrial fabric which was the great showing of the Germany that arose after 1870.

With the prospect eliminated of a crushing triumph such as she looked forward to on Sedan Day a year ago, a triumph which would have atoned for the moral weakness of her case, Germany has now recognized the need of straightening that fatal gap in her defences. Hence the recognition that she cannot afford to flout neutral rights and neutral opinion. Hence the effort to offset the stigma of Belgium by advancing the promise of a free Poland and the championship of the rights of the Jews in Russia. Hence the unmistakable effort to erase the impression in this, the most powerful of neutral nations, that German victory would be a calamity for the world and to reawaken, if possible, the sentiment of forty-five years ago when Sedan was welcomed in this country as a great stroke for civilization.

THE NAVY'S DILEMMA.

Pity the poor Navy Department! On July 21 President Wilson wrote to Secretary Daniels asking him to get the "best minds in the Navy Department to work" on the matter "of a wise and adequate naval programme." Since then all the minds in the Navy Department have been agitated on this subject, and, if current Washington gossip is correct, the experts are not only up a tree, but are ungracefully reposing in its topmost branches. Or, to use a more nautical figure, they are so far at sea as to be beyond vision of the coast they are to protect. For, if the truth must be told, this horrid European war, while greatly increasing the demand for preparedness, has deliberately unsettled all the established naval theories, and has not as yet definitely established any new facts or tactics or proved the superiority of any particular arm, unless it be the submarine.

Take the question of the battleship. Its supporters admit that it is helpless the minute a submarine appears, and has to flee to the nearest harbor for shelter, there to be protected in every conceivable way. If an English battleship goes to sea to-day, she is surrounded by a small fleet of destroyers and torpedo-boats that course around her "like a pack of mad greyhounds," according to a naval writer. The one argument which the defender of the battleship has is that it has given to England the command of the sea, although hidden away in an obscure harbor, just as the German battleships are put up, in camphor presumably, at Kiel. This is like a game of cards in which no one dares show what he holds, but in which the man who says he has the largest number of trumps wins without laying them on the table. It would seem as if out of this might be worked some international arrangement by which all loss of life on battleships could be spared, and sea-fights avoided, by simply letting umpires count the battleships on each side, as they lie at their hidden anchorages, and award the victory to the side having the most. The drawback to that would be that it would unduly stimulate battleship production. At all events, the fact is that the battleship has proved of no avail in action thus far, and the newest has made little impression on the coast defences of the Dardanelles.

Soon after the war began there was a howl because our navy was so deficient in battle-cruisers—they were to be the ships of the future. Since the inception of our modern fleet, our Navy Department has, like every other, slavishly followed the British. Great Britain had battle-cruisers, and Germany had imitated her, so we must fall in line. Then came the one battle, between equal modern forces, that off Heligoland and behold! the newest and finest British battle-cruiser, the Lion, was put out of business by a single German shot, which penetrated her vitals and so disabled her that she had to be towed in as if she were a wooden frigate of 1861. Then it appeared that the chief damage to the German ships was done to their decks, the range being so great (the big ships actually began firing at each other when they were only just visible through telescopes) that the British shots, instead of striking the sides, came plunging from above. As a result, there has actually been some discussion in Washington as to whether the decks of ships must not be roofed over with heavy armor! Of course, each ship is to have a triple bottom hereafter to guard against submarines—all of which enormously increases their cost and unwieldiness, and yet gives no assurance whatever that the ship will stay afloat if submarined.

Indeed, before the war, a French admiral, Degouy, went so far as to say that the only hope for the battleship was its transformation into a submarine! The submersible battleship, he thinks, will be about the size of the surface ships of ten or fifteen years ago. But the British have shown that the aeroplane is a very effective weapon against the submarine, and if you greatly increase the latter's size, it becomes much less immune from attack. Again, if you can have submersible battleships, you can have submersible cargo-boats, as the *Manchester Guardian* points out, and then what is to be-

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come of submarine blockades, or any other kind? Then, to the confusion of the experts, submarines have been sinking submarines, and the British appear to have developed a defence against them which is beginning to tell heavily—the English have lost only four or five auxiliary cruisers by torpedoes in the last eight months in all the warfare in the Channel and the North Sea. No regular British warship has been sunk outside of the Adriatic since January 1. None the less, as British writers freely admit, the submarine has done so well that it is likely to be the prevailing type of warship, with its antidotes yet to be fully developed. However, it has been suggested in Washington by an officer that if a submarine appears on the surface, her crew should carry armored umbrellas to protect themselves from aeroplane bombs!

As for dirigible balloons, of which the navy has ordered one, we are still in the dark as to the failure of the Zeppelins to do anything but kill and maim civilians. It is said that they do not use all the terrible explosives they could carry because it would stagger humanity if they did. At any rate, here is another problem the navy men have to dispose of. As for questions of gunfire, if naval battles are to be fought by ships at a range of twelve miles, or when they are almost invisible, every preconceived theory of gunnery must be cast aside. Truly, the lot of the navy officers and officials who must make their recommendations to Mr. Wilson is not an enviable one. At heart many of them must agree with the common-sense of Representative Kitchin's statement that the time to legislate for the navy is when the war is over and its lessons can be really ascertained. As it is, the chances are that, being compelled to ask for something, and not knowing what, they will pass the plate to the taxpayer for a good bit more of everything—in fear and trembling lest the needlessness of the soup and the fish become apparent before they can draw from the Treasury what Congress grants for the roast and the dessert.

WHAT MAY BE HOPED FOR FROM THE "SHORT BALLOT."

In a letter printed in the New York *Evening Post*, the claims of the short-ballot amendments are challenged upon grounds quite different from those which have been most current. The correspondent does not seek to dispose of those claims by labelling the proposal as undemocratic; he envelops the question in an atmosphere far more philosophical. But whether objections of the nature of those advanced in this communication have more substance than those of the ordinary standpatter may well be questioned. If there be any who expect that through the mere agency of the short ballot "sinecures, extravagance, trespasses, and graft, and all the ills that afflict the body politic where a short ballot does not exist, will promptly disappear," we quite agree with this writer that there is nothing in experience or in human nature to support these hopes. But we have no reason to believe that either the advocates of the short ballot or any considerable portion of the public which has been won over to its support indulge in any such idle dreams.

In regard to reforms in the mechanism of government, two opposite errors are made with about equal frequency—the error of ascribing to them a self-contained potency which they do not possess, and the error of supposing that if they do not possess this potency they are valueless or of little account. The Australian ballot will not insure pure elections in a community utterly indifferent to the purity of elections; but throughout the country thousands of communities which, in the days of the old-fashioned ballot, were constantly afflicted with the evil of fraudulent elections, have found it perfectly easy almost completely to eliminate that evil. The merit system in the civil service does not by merely being written into the statute book do away with the spoils system; but in the national Government, and in a number of our States and cities, the merit-system laws have been quite sufficient to reduce to comparatively insignificant dimensions the plague of spoils—and this during a period in which the magnitude of the spoils themselves, or rather of what would have been spoils under the old system, has enormously increased. In this matter there has been accomplished something little short of a revolution; and it was accomplished without any change in human nature. The mere writing of the law alone did not bring it about; what it did do was to give efficacy to sincere and intelligent efforts directed to that end, which without the law would have continued to be ineffective.

It is the same way with the short ballot. Like nearly all the maxims that condense into an epigram great questions of human conduct, those that point to the futility of mere changes in governmental mechanism are but half-truths at best. That "the stream cannot rise higher than its source"; that "the welfare of society is dependent upon the character of its members"; that, as Pope has it—

> For forms of government let fools contest,
> Whate'er is best administered is best—

all these things are very good as warnings against the expectation of miraculous relief through mere readjustments of form. But to accept them as complete guidance would be to ignore both abstract reason and concrete experience. In some sense it may be true enough that a people gets as good government as it deserves; but everything depends upon what you mean by deserts. If we were all sufficiently wise, sufficiently virtuous, and sufficiently energetic, we could doubtless compel good government out of any form of laws and institutions, however absurd. But taking men as they are, nothing is more certain than that the degree in which the excellence of their government may be made to correspond to the desires of the community depends to a quite immeasurable extent upon the ease or the difficulty with which the apparatus can be made to respond to those desires. The people of New York State, for example, some years ago showed quite unmistakably that they wanted the kind of government which was represented by the character and the purposes of Gov. Hughes; they showed it not only in electing him, but in the way in which they responded to his appeals for support against the forces with which he had constantly to contend while in the Executive chair. Will anybody say that it would have made absolutely no difference if he had been free to give himself to the accomplishment of his purposes without being compelled to struggle with those obstacles?

That New Jersey has had the short ballot and yet has suffered under an aggravated form of boss rule only shows that more is necessary for the achievement of pure and efficient government than the mere shortness of the ballot. On the other hand, when one speaks of the failure of the movement towards concentration of responsibility in our cities to cure the ills of municipal government, we can but say that one flies in the face of facts which, so far as we know, very few would dispute. It may almost be said that the adoption of the New York city charter marked the beginning of a new era in American municipal government, an era presenting so great a contrast to what had preceded it that the most sanguine reformer could hardly have supposed the change to be possible in so short a time. There is scarcely a great city in the country that has not advanced to a position in which scandals

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which in former days were regarded as matters of course have come to be almost unthinkable; and increased concentration of responsibility has undeniably been a chief agency in making this improvement possible. But, as the history of our own city only too amply attests, the change has been by no means automatic, nor indeed has the progress been one of unbroken continuity. The better form of government has but been a means of making solid achievement possible by a reasonable amount of earnest effort, whereas under the old form the effort required was beyond the capacity of our store of civic virtue. And the same thing may be expected in the State government when the same means have been put within the reach of the citizens, and the same power lodged in the hands of those to whom they entrust the administration of their affairs.

NERVE AND SKILL IN COMPETITION.

What has been said about the higher standardization that seems to have been attained in tennis as compared with golf would be borne out by the showing in the two championship competitions just finished. Of the golf "triumvirate"—the word has shot up into popularity, and triumvirates we shall have for some time to come—all three went down in the early rounds. Of the tennis triumvirate all survived the early rounds. At Forest Hills the older players prevailed. An upset in golf usually means the triumph of young pluck over tried skill. In tennis, on the other hand, it means usually the triumph of veteran strategy and cunning over fiery youth. That golf is the more open game is shown by the number of men who have won first and second place during the last ten years. In golf the twenty places have been held by fifteen men. In tennis the twenty places have been held by only six men.

In theory, the showing ought to be the other way. Games may be divided into two classes, the full competitive and the semi-competitive. In the first you fight against nature and an opponent. Such are tennis, baseball, football, where there is another man to prevent your working your will on the ball. Golf comes with all the field sports under the semi-competitive games, where essentially you play against yourself. Your own condition primarily determines how fast you will cover the mile on the track or the four miles on the water or the eighteen holes on the links. Any interference with an opponent's doing his best constitutes a foul. In golf the only element of the kind is the stymie, and the morality of this play has lately been brought into question. In theory, tennis would be on the same basis as golf if the game consisted entirely in serving and the winner were determined by the least number of double faults in a given number of strokes. Yet theory is put entirely to flight by the facts. Golf, instead of being the more consistent game of the two, is much the more erratic. A correspondent from Detroit protested against the description of one player's game as mechanically effective. There is nothing mechanical in golf; and he quoted one eminent professional of the links: "You can't get far if the Lord isn't with you." This would put golf in the same class with the German armies.

To speak of golf as semi-competitive is to allow for the element of human opposition. Ouimet's fight against Vardon and Ray was very nearly as direct combat as if the English players had been permitted by the rules of the game to intercept Ouimet's ball and send it into a trap or bunker. The factor of playing to win enters into all games. And yet there is golf history, with its numerous instances of practice games made in marvellous figures, proving that the presence of a human opponent is not essential to bring out the best in a player. If, therefore, golf is uncertain, the explanation may be found in two facts: first, that the most formidable human opponent a man can meet is himself, and, secondly, that an inanimate opponent in the shape of bunker, trap, water hazard, or deep grass can arouse as much exasperation and be as fully destructive of nervous tissue as the most alert of living competitors. If anything, the obstacle is the more serious in golf. It is dumb rage that throws a man completely off his game, the presence of an enemy who is visible, but silent, contemptuously indifferent, who will not be "rattled" by your fine shot, and will not grow reckless when it scores against you. The effect of a sliced drive behind a tree, for its destructive psychological reaction, is not to be compared with a deadly placement by McLoughlin.

The psychology of golf is a problem which, we believe, Professor Münsterberg has not yet tackled with his measuring instruments. The results would be interesting. We might obtain a more precise explanation than the one outlined above for the puzzling fact that in golf, which theoretically should be more certain than tennis, we never dare speak of the invincible Travers as we used to speak of the invincible McLoughlin.

Foreign Correspondence

GERMANY IN ANTE-BELLUM FRANCE—PEACEFUL PENETRATION VERSUS WAR.

By STODDARD DEWEY.

PARIS, August 21.

Have Americans any idea of the extent to which—before the war—Germans had penetrated France? Those in France who knew best the conditions of her industry and commerce, and agriculture, even, were not awake to it. Now that it is becoming known, it throws a queer light on Germany's attempted justification for entering into war so recklessly—that she was "encircled" and deprived of necessary "expansion."

The French Government has so far "sequestered" over 12,000 properties held by Germans in France. This represents rather more than fewer business enterprises; for many were company properties with branches in various parts of French territory, or one company was often engaged in multiple trade. The number also does not include countless business houses and undertakings carried on by more or less freshly naturalized French citizens hailing from across the Rhine and still retaining interests there. These sequestered properties are neither confiscated nor are their business operations brought to an end; but they are placed in the hands of a French Government receiver, to be administered with strict accountability until the peace settlement shall decide their future status.

Exactly what number of individual Germans thus found their opportunity of money-making in France it would be difficult to calculate; and moreover these openly German houses do not account for all the Germans finding occupation in France. They were everywhere—waiters in hotels, and brokers' clerks at the Bourse, and wherever international commission business or intermediaries were needed. And this leaves still beyond calculation the really German companies organized under the French law, which little by little were taking vast control of all sorts of industry and trade and navigation. And it was the same in Italy, not to speak of England.

A good example of what has been going on is the quite recent sequestering in Paris of the properties of a single man—Herr Jellinek, of the famous Mercedes Company. For the rest of France this had been done some time ago. They were his private properties, and are roughly estimated at a value of $40,000,000. There was among them at least one hotel and villas on the Riviera; but he was also chief stockholder in six Paris hotels, in another at Trouville, and so on.

The most notorious of these was the Hotel Astoria, which now serves as the Japanese ambulance hospital. At the very beginning of war, while the hotel was still open, a wireless telegraph station was discovered on the roof, and a war story was made of the manager having been set up against a wall and incontinently shot. That is perhaps the way things would have been done in his Fatherland. In reality, the French authorities accepted his explanation, good or bad, and he

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has been in a concentration camp until, very lately, a charge of embezzlement brought him back to answer before the courts.

The real crime had been, for half a dozen years, the existence of his hotel building. Contrary to all municipal regulation, its height had been run up above the sky-line of the neighboring circle of uniform houses, which give due proportion and symmetry to the great open space around Napoleon's Arc de Triomphe. Art Kolossal in such a neighborhood! Across the circle another hotel, also I think controlled by Germans, had set the example a little earlier, but not with such enormity. Well, until the war, neither legal process nor municipal right had been able to bring about the due cutting down of this monument!

It is not the place here to go into the very complicated subject of the preferential treatment of Germany by France in matters of international trade, and of German trade in France itself. This was a result of the Treaty of Frankfort, which was made after the war of 1870, and has been backed up *manu militari* by Germany ever since. Besides customs tariffs and treatment more favorable than the most favored nation clause ever secured for England, its hard and fast provisions were so interpreted as to give the German resident in France privileges over Frenchmen themselves.

Baron von Schoen, the last German Ambassador, was an adept at such interpretation, and terrorized French Government authorities with his threats. A German business of automobile tires, organized as a French company, ought legally to have manufactured in France the products which it put on the Franch market—or it should have imported them from its German factory, duly marked "made in Germany," and have paid the legal duties. It found it cheaper to make its tires in Germany, to declare them at the frontier as undutiable material, and to mark them—beforehand at the German factory—"made in France." When the French customs tried to apply the law against this puerile evasion, Baron von Schoen became so threatening that the breach of law and treaty was overlooked. So it was ever since the Kaiser's threat at Tangier, and particularly since Agadir.

This was direct sharp practice, but the ultra-scientific "specifications" of a new customs tariff made by Germany also kept for herself all the favors in the reciprocity guaranteed to France by the Treaty of Frankfort. The few who follow in the United States American international relations will not need reminding of the virtual confiscation of Standard Oil property which was only suspended by the war (if it has been suspended), and the laughing of our diplomacy out of court in the negotiations concerning the potash monopoly some years ago. As to France, during forty-four years Germany has been her everlasting Shylock.

A little inland from the Norman seaport of Caen, there was iron ore which the French had not succeeded in working. Little by little, Herr Thyssen, the rival of Krupp, bought up the land roundabout, and obtained a concession for a railway to the port, where he bought wharfland. A hue and cry was raised just in time to allow Government to take over the few miles of rail, but Thyssen kept 40 per cent. of the mining company's stock, with the obligation of using his German coal in the smelting. A line of vessels was to secure communications comfortably through the length of the Channel to a port in northern France, and so on to Germany. The completion of this scheme for Germanizing France war, too, has frustrated; but a similar taking possession of French mines by Germans was elsewhere an accomplished fact.

In the long run, more important than these showy enterprises would have been the slow, steady, sure infiltration of Germans into every line of French business. There is a big dress-making house near the Paris Opéra, the fingers of whose German backer were in many pies, including a fashionable perfume. Looking down the list of sequestered properties in Paris and surroundings, I find machine tools, and antiquities, clocks, cabinet-making, and galvanized tin boxes, commission houses, gloves, furs, knives, jewelry, electric appliances, numerous "banks," and so on, and so on—and "articles de Paris." At Havre, Germans had their hands on coffee, cotton, pepper, oils, dye-woods—with a pork butcher and a ladies' tailor. In central France, in the remote region of Le Puy, Germans were installed for laces, sewing and farm machines, hardware, leather, weaving, and pottery, lead-pencils, and manufactured rubber (tires "made in France"), furs, beer, playthings, and paper and printing.

So it has been going on all over the fair land of France. In the French protectorate of Tunis, ninety-seven German business houses have been sequestered. Wherever France has put her foot in Morocco, it has been the same; and the Mannesmann brothers were backed by German threats when they claimed universally all mining lands in virtue of concessions, inexplicit and unmapped, obtained from one or other fleeting Sultan. Progress was steady, and French law in practice protected Germans when it did not give them advantages over Frenchmen.

Even yet I have spoken only of the penetration of France by Germans personally. They had no reason to be dissatisfied with the spread of their products, material and intellectual. Their manufactured articles—often, as I have noticed, labelled "articles de Paris"—were in every shop. Their methods of painful erudition triumphed in the University at the expense of French common-sense and clearness. The Salon d'Automne was given over to their peculiar art, to a degree that has made suspicious minds imagine a fell design on their part to do away utterly with distinctive French taste. Opera and one state theatre were won over to their mistiness. And only war has opened to French Socialists the abyss in which the country they loved was to be lost in a Germanization of humanity under the label of internationalism.

All this is now of the past. From workmen to professors of philosophy, Frenchmen have had sharp evidence of war to bring their minds and hearts back to themselves. I wonder if Germans in industry and commerce really expected that victory in war, with all its consequences of destruction and hate, would advance their interests faster than the peaceful penetration which was so sure. Perhaps they, too, are victims of Prussian militarism. It is certainly difficult to see how German business will once more gain possession of France. This generation is not likely to see again the peaceful invasions of German companies under protection of a watchful Ambassador, ready at a moment's notice to emit threats that

—vaulted like rebounding hail.

THE NATIONAL REGISTRATION ACT—AN EMERGENCY MEASURE WHICH WILL PROBABLY BE OF LITTLE SERVICE.

By T. L. GILMOUR.

LONDON, August 17.

We have all been busily engaged during the week-end in filling up the forms distributed throughout the length and breadth of the land, in accordance with the terms of the National Registration act—all of us, that is, who are over fifteen and under sixty-five. Parliament, in its wisdom, has decreed that this record of our national human resources shall be made, and the work has been carried out with, for the most part, efficiency and success from the point of view of organization. Twenty-five million forms have been printed; local bodies have been entrusted with the task of their distribution, collection, and the tabulation of the results, and these local bodies have called for and obtained the assistance of an army of volunteers to supplement their regular staffs. In its way, it is an admirable piece of organization, but its utility is a question upon which there is by no means complete unanimity of opinion. If we are to believe those who have been most clamorous for the work to be done, the completion of the national Register is to mark the beginning of a new era of national efficiency for the purposes of the war. "In twenty-four hours," wrote one enthusiast in a Sunday paper, "the National Register will be an actuality, and in a few days its practical use as an implement of state should have begun." This is, perhaps, the high-water mark of expectation, but it is none the less merely an exaggerated statement of the hopes which have been fostered in the minds of a large section of the population; hopes which, in the judgment of another not inconsiderable section, are inevitably doomed to disappointment.

The one thing which is beyond dispute about the National Register is that it was an emergency measure. No student of what is happening to-day in England can escape from the conclusion that the British Government and the British people are engaged in the gigantic task of improvising measures to meet a condition of things which neither Government nor people have foreseen. In a sense this is a reproach to us; but there is another sense in which we may call this very unpreparedness in aid of our plea that the responsibility for this world-catastrophe does not rest upon our shoulders. The underlying assumption upon which we in this country have hitherto organized our lives has been that peace was the normal condition of the existence of humanity, and war the abnormal. In Germany this assumption has been reversed by the class which counts. I do not see any reason to doubt that the commercial classes in Germany—apart from certain striking exceptions—and the great bulk of the industrial and agricultural workers were desirous of the preservation of peace; but none the less the German Government was organized for war.

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The fact itself is not denied, and the best that can be said by those members of the governing class in Germany who feel under any obligation to explain, is that war was necessary as a preliminary to the establishment of that German hegemony of Europe which must ultimately bestow on that continent, not merely the blessings of a permanent peace, but the still greater treasures of the *Kultur* which is supposed to be Germany's large gift to humanity.

This pseudo-philosophic justification of Germany's war-preparedness we owe rather to those amazing professors in whose production Germany appears to enjoy a monopoly than to the East Prussian Junkers who are the real rulers of Germany, and to whom whatever credit there may be for this war-preparedness is due.

And for our lack of war-preparedness we must as a nation take whatever blame may be rightly imputed to us. But the point I want to make clear to our friends in America is that we have had to improvise very largely since the outbreak of the war, that we are still engaged in the difficult task of adapting our resources to the end we now have in view, and that this stupendous task, carried out as it must necessarily be by finite human beings, must equally furnish, necessarily, abundant material for criticism, both at home and abroad. The new National Register at its best can only provide the Government with the means of obtaining certain information on which action can be based, and it is certain that many of the perfervid anticipations based upon the making of the Register are foredoomed to disappointment. If the Register does not "in a few days demonstrate its utility" as an implement of state, the Government will once more find itself denounced in the columns of a certain class of newspapers as wholly incompetent to guide the national destinies. But those denunciations do not interpret the sentiments of the bulk of our people. Business men—the men who are accustomed to handle the practical affairs of life—do not fall into the vulgar error of supposing that twenty-five millions of forms can be tabulated and analyzed in a few days, or a few weeks, or that even when the information is available the Government will be able to assign to each citizen the work which he is most capable of doing to assist the nation in attaining the final goal of victory.

Yet it is as pathetic as it is disquieting to note the exaggerated hopes which are based upon the completion of the National Register. Look, for a moment, at the letter which Lord St. Audries has sent to the press, a letter instinct with the passion of patriotism, in which the writer—better remembered as Sir Alexander Acland-Hood, a former Chief Whip of the Tory party—recalls the reply which Captain Hood, of the Zealous, gave to Nelson at the battle of the Nile, when the Admiral asked if there was enough water to enable him to get in between the French fleet and the shore. "I don't know, sir," Hood replied, "but with your permission I will stand in and try." And here is Lord St. Audries's obviously sincere comment: "At this moment the great majority of men and women in this country want to 'stand in and try.'" But they ask for directions from the Government as to how and where they are to try. When the National Register is completed the people expect the Government to direct every man and woman recorded in its lists to the particular duty for which he or she is best fitted.

Was there ever such a demand made upon a Government? What can possibly be Lord St. Audries's conception of a "Government"? He cannot have a mental vision of Mr. Asquith, Mr. Lloyd George, and Lord Kitchener poring over the Register and deciding into which square, round, oblong, or polygonal hole each of the twenty-five million citizens is to be dropped. But if Cabinet Ministers are not to undertake the task, perhaps it is the permanent Government officials who are to decide our fate. Unfortunately, every Government department is already working under extreme pressure, and has had to be strengthened by the importation of large numbers of competent outsiders. There remains the Registrar-General, who is the official responsible for the compilation of the Register, and under whose supervision the tabulation and analysis of results will be carried out. But Lord St. Audries certainly does not mean that the Registrar-General is to tell him and others in like case what they are to do; still less, I imagine, does he propose to place these autocratic state powers in the hands of the local officials, who are the subordinates for this purpose of the Registrar-General.

The plain fact is that, except for the purpose of obtaining a record of the men of military age who are not actually engaged in military duties, the National Register will probably serve very little useful purpose, and the information as to the men of military age could obviously have been obtained with much less trouble and expenditure, and would have been so obtained but for the fact that, in that case, the opposition from those who do not want conscription would have been much more pronounced than against the more comprehensive scheme. Outside the question of military service, the difficulty which the Government is in is that it cannot utilize a tithe of the men who have already offered their services in any capacity for which they are required.

The pretence that the Register is required because it will bring to the knowledge of "the Government" men whose services could be of use, but who are not offering their services, is offensive and unjust. What is really happening is that the Government offices and individual members of the Government are inundated with offers of assistance from men who feel a sense of humiliation that they cannot render their country some distinct service in her hour of trial. An Eton master writes to the papers to say that he and many of his colleagues offered their services for the school holidays to the War Office, enumerating their various qualifications, but neither at the War Office nor at the Ministry of Munitions could their services be used. It is the same everywhere. There are far more willing workers than the Government can employ, and brutal though it may sound, the plain truth is that many of these crying to the Government for employment would best serve the state by doing better the thing they are already doing, and by practicing that individual personal economy which in the aggregate will contribute so materially to enable the country to meet the colossal financial responsibilities imposed on us by the war.

The Faerie Isle of Mackinac

IMPRESSIONS AND REFLECTIONS.

By W. H. JOHNSON.

I was walking on the ever beautiful summit of Mackinac Island. A shower of rain a few hours before had swept away a trifle of limestone dust, the only soilure that ever stains the foliage along its paths and driveways, where the insistent automobile, with its malodorous fumes, is barred, the heavy wagon has no call to come, and only the light carriage with its smiling group of tourists now and then flashes into sight around some curve and melts away again among the trees.

I had strolled up from the little town through the old fort, and then through the short rifle range. For years no sound of target practice has startled the birds flitting among the cedars and balsams which densely line its sides. Clumps of ground hemlock break the grass which carpets its stony surface, and instead of the soldier's uniform which shone there in years long gone, the daintier blue of a little wild daisy flecks the green of the old range from end to end.

Clambering up the steep, gullied slope at the farther end of the range, I reached the highest level of the island, and after walking a few hundred feet came to "Point Lookout." A few miles to the northeast, a white spot on the rippled water identified itself through my glasses as the little excursion steamer which had left the island an hour before for the winding channels of "Les Cheneaux," whence the poorly mounted forms of a mascallonge or two always decorate the Mackinac docks by way of allurement to the angler. Northward my eye traced the darkly wooded shores of the curving bay of St. Martin, while far off to the east arose the smoke of a freighter emerging from St. Mary's River on its way down the Lakes. In the nearer distance an excursion steamer headed for "the Soo" was passing a long ore barge which was making its way into the straits for Lake Michigan. Below me, covering the mid level of the island to an extent of several hundred acres, stretched a dense carpet of treetops, the soft quivering beauty of which neither brush not tongue could ever hope to reproduce. The coming autumn had already sketched in a foretaste of the color scheme for later on. Here and there the limbs of a beech were tipped with that rich, warm russet brown which, I cannot doubt, was one of the qualities that gave to the tree its hold on the nature-loving soul of Virgil. The birches had a touch of their delicious yellow, a color which, as it appears in nature, so little deserves the discredit heaped upon it in certain connections by the slang of the thoughtless multitude. And the maples! How can one do justice to the unnumbered gradations of red and pink and yellow, now dazzlingly bright and again softly translucent, which had already caught them here and there and would soon transform the whole island into a flame of glory!

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And scattered around and among the deciduous trees, now in broad dense groups, now in little clusters, and again in single isolation, was one green of the fir, and another green of the hemlock, and another of the spruce, and another of the pine, and yet others of the tamarack and the cedar, with gray limbs of beeches and white limbs of birches peeping through it all in a bewilderment of variety utterly inexpressible and yet absolutely harmonious.

Walking back to the southwestern side of the upper level, I gazed upon a different scene. Round Island, with its red lighthouse, lay close beneath, but separated by a deep channel, the pathway of all the great freighters that handle the commerce between Lake Superior and Lake Michigan. Beyond Round Island runs another narrow channel, and then the long island of Bois Blanc ("Boblo," in common parlance), broadening to the southward, and on the mainland across from its lower end the lazily rising smoke from the once-busy lumber town of Cheboygan. The steam from a Michigan Central train drew the eye up shore to Mackinaw City, from the docks of which the great car ferry, "Chief Wawatam," was backing out into the straits, presumably laden with a cargo of empty ore cars for the Duluth & South Shore Railway at St. Ignace. Westward, between the dimly rising islands of Waugoshance and Ste. Helene, one of the great passenger steamers from Chicago was looming black over the Lake Michigan horizon. Lumber boats, ore barges, pleasure craft dotted the straits here and there, while great flocks of gulls, frightened occasionally from their resting places, swept the air for a time in noisy evolutions and settled down again upon the limestone breakwater which protects the Mackinac docks.

In unresisting surrender to the witchery of the scene I had all but lost my consciousness of the severer realities of life when suddenly a whiff of wind stirred a bit of newspaper at my feet and brought into sight the brutal headlines that told of old-time hate and present death and future sorrow on the borderlands dividing half a dozen war-stricken countries of the Old World. And then the thought rushed into my mind: "What might have been, under other circumstances, the condition to-day of this great British-American borderland on which I am standing, amid surroundings that speak only of unmarred natural beauty and human peace and safety? I am actually standing upon the time-worn remains of a defensive embankment which figured actively in the War of 1812." Below me, on the brow of the mid-level, lay old "Fort Mackinac," a mere plaything in comparison with fortresses of recent times, where a little detachment of our troops was maintained until about twenty years ago. The needless fort was then abandoned to the State of Michigan, and to-day its neatly kept walls and barracks are but one of the attractions of the State Park Association. As I trained my glasses on it, a golden-haired girl sat jauntily on the diminutive cannon which adorns one of its angles, and a young man at one side was focussing his camera upon her—the whole scene but little more suggestive of present-day fortresses than the boy's sailboat on the pond of Boston Common is suggestive of the Dreadnoughts now guarding the North Sea. Why is it thus?

Why do we give up to health and pleasure an island so near the border of a land once hostile, an island actually used in deadly warfare with that land a century ago, an island suited by its very nature for transformation into an impregnable stronghold, an island which, through its proximity to the mouth of the St. Mary's River and its absolute command of the entrance to Lake Michigan, would be of the most vital importance in case of war with our neighbors to the North? *Why?* The answer is simple. Considerations of human brotherhood have been allowed to have their way. Good sense has combined with good feeling to choke down among us that accursed falsehood of the ages that great nations cannot live and prosper side by side, free from the demoralizing suspicion that each is but waiting and praying for an opportunity to strike the deadly stroke that will enable it to build up its greatness and glory upon the ruins of the other. We look with contempt upon the man that prates of an "inevitable" war between these two nations for the control of North America. We spurn the lie that "peace" with the British is to be secured by turning our northern border into one long potential Hell of fire and steel which our neighbors will not dare to stir into action. We leave our mighty inland seas free from the menace of the Dreadnought, and our toilers keep in their hands the unlimited millions which would be wrung from them under the stimulus of a falsely named "patriotism" if the policy of border fortification were adopted. *War inevitable?* The time will yet come when among civilized nations that word will be more applicable to peace.

The next day, as I sat on the deck of a Detroit steamer and looked at the island settling back in the distance, another thought came to me. In various ways we have been commemorating a century of peace with Great Britain. What fitter memorial of that peace, what better earnest of its continuance, than a stately column rising into the air from the summit of Mackinac Island, its base resting upon the very site of the upper fort? The beacon light from its summit would catch the eye here and there of the traveller and boatman coming down from "the Soo," would gleam far beyond Detour over northern Huron, far south over the sailing routes to the lower lakes, and far out beyond Waugoshance and Ste. Helene into upper Lake Michigan, far over the woods and fields of both peninsulas of Michigan and into the Canadian forests beyond the St. Mary's, and everywhere it would carry its reminder of that peace whose blessings are so much a part of our everyday life that we lose consciousness of their source and of the conditions of their retention. What better use could some one of our wealthy philanthropists whose fortunes have had their genesis so largely in this northern region make of some portion of that gain than to build such a monument, dedicating it in some fitting form of words to that nobility of purpose and clearness of insight which have enabled these two nations to realize that the way to maintain peace with each other is to believe in peace and to prepare for peace? And in such a monument there might be a prophecy of the day when it will be a safe and fitting thing to melt the cannon that frown over the Straits of Gibraltar and raise their metal on the famous rock in the form of a monument to the assured peace of the civilized world.

Book Notes and Byways

THE MODERN PART OF A UNIVERSAL HISTORY.

A few years before the issuing of the first edition of the "Encyclopædia Britannica," that Scottish work, there was published at London, in 1766, the third edition of the Universal History—"the most valuable history that ever was," at least in the opinion of the piraters of the first edition. This has been called "Sale's Universal History." George Sale, translator of the Koran, may have proposed the scheme to the booksellers. But Sale died in 1736, the date given as that of the first edition, folio, of the Universal History, which appeared in parts, so many sheets a month, possibly beginning in 1736. Sale's contribution was for the difficult period from the Creation to the Flood. John Swinton [1703-1777] had a share in the work. He had been for a time chaplain of the English factory at Leghorn. Boswell says of the learned Mr. Swinton that he was absent-minded, so much so that preaching before malefactors to be executed during the week, he ended his discourse by saying he would continue "on next Lord's Day." George Shelvocke [d. 1760], son of the privateer whose voyage furnished Coleridge with the Albatross incident, had a part in the composition of the Universal History; as also George Psalmanazar [d. 1763], the famous literary impostor who, born in the south of France, posed so skilfully as a Japanese convert. Archibald Bower, of Dundee [1686-1766], Jesuit and then no Jesuit; and Dr. John Campbell, of Edinburgh [1708-1775], who never passed a church without taking off his hat, were, according to Dr. Johnson, the other authors of the Universal History. Bower, author of a History of the Popes, wrote for the Universal History the History of Rome to 1453. He is said to have been the general editor of the edition of 1747, receiving £300 and doing very little.

This laborious work was so well regarded from its first publication that it was pirated here and there, certainly in Ireland. The London booksellers who had projected the work determined on a second and revised edition, which began to appear in 1747, with the promise that a Modern Part, then preparing, would shortly be issued. The dedication of 1747 was to the professors in the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, obligations to them being acknowledged. It is significant that not one of the authors, so far as they are known, occupied a professor's chair at either University;

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only Mr. Swinton had any university connection, being keeper of the archives at Oxford for ten years after 1767.

In 1766 there was issued a third edition with the promised Modern Part included—"after a long delay, occasioned by a variety of accidents which could not be foreseen, the Modern Universal History now makes its appearance." Who wrote the long Preface of 1766 to the Modern Part, it would be of much interest to know. Perhaps it was Dr. Campbell, but this is merely a guess. The Preface contains more than one acute observation, such as Dr. Campbell showed himself capable of in his "Political State of Europe," published in 1750. It is clear, for one thing, that we do not know who were the authors of the Modern Universal History, notwithstanding the title page—"By the Authors of the Ancient Part." The Preface runs (p. xiii): "The reader is not to expect to find the same accuracy, either of language or composition, in every part of this history. A plan so very extensive required a great variety of hands as well as length of time to carry it into execution. Sometimes death interposed, and an original author left his work unfinished in such a manner that the plan upon which he went was often unintelligible to his successor. Sometimes materials proved defective, which left most lamentable chasms in the work, that could be replaced only by painful investigation and elaborate researches. . . . We know not, for instance, an authentic history of the European transactions for forty years past. This laid the editors under inexpressible disadvantage." For example, the history of Prussia is given in twenty-one pages (vol. xxxi).

To an American to-day, material of great interest in this work is supplied by Dr. Campbell's history of the settlements in the East Indies (vols. vi, vii, and viii). Indeed, in the Preface it is hoped "that the reader will be particularly pleased with the labor and attention which have been bestowed upon a complete history of the commerce to, and the settlements in the East-Indies by the several European nations; an history which has been carefully compiled from such materials as occur to very few individuals and is indeed the fruit of the most elaborate and successful researches." As much might be said of the accounts of the Gold, Slave, and Ivory Coasts (vols. xiii, xiv).

And who wrote the history of America, before Robertson? (vols. xxxiv, xxxv, xxxvi)—

"The editors think they have a claim to the patronage of the public on account of the history of America contained in the following work. It is the first general history of that extensive country that has ever appeared in the English language." It is not impossible that Dr. Campbell put together this first general history of America. Dr. Johnson was a little jealous of "Cawmell," but is reported to have described him as the "richest author that ever grazed the common of literature."

Dr. Campbell had written a "Concise History of Spanish America" which went through two editions; and in 1762, at the request of the Earl of Bute, he wrote a "Description and History of the New Sugar Islands in the West Indies." It must be said, however, that Dr. Campbell, in work certainly his, is scrupulous in the citation of authority, whereas the author of this America is sparing in that regard, and for parts of the British North American Colonies has been content to follow Oldmixon's "British Empire" of 1741, itself a very unequal record. The distribution of this "History of America" is as follows: Mexico and South America, 632 pages; British North America, 458 pages; the West India Islands, 198 pages; Summary, 92 pages; in all, 1,380 pages, large 12mo, reckoning by the format of the edition of 1779.

That is to say, a fourth edition was brought out, 1779-1784, by the Rivingtons, Longman, Cadell, Murray, and other booksellers, who declare in their advertisement that the enterprise had been "accompanied with almost unprecedented expense." These sixty volumes (including the four on the British Isles added after the general and minute index volume), form still a shelf of good reading, eighteen volumes for the ancient history, and the remainder for the modern history, the modern part beginning with the Empire of the Arabs, treating then of all Asia, proceeding on to Africa, reaching Europe by way of Malta, going thoroughly into the Continent of Europe (eighteen volumes), with fitness entering upon America immediately after the Kingdom of Savoy. Not one of the known authors was living in 1784 when the sixtieth volume appeared, and changes enough had been wrought during the publishing of the Modern Part, to say nothing of the Ancient.

A. J. Morrison.

Notes from the Capital

A GRADUATE IN ASTRONOMY.

As the spokesman of Ambrose Swasey to announce the establishment of an Engineering Foundation with a fortune built on telescope-making, Henry Smith Pritchett renewed his touch with the profession in which he won his first successes.

In the youthful minds of my generation astronomy was associated with a tradition of flowing gray beards, bent figures, enveloping gowns, run-down slippers, and general shabbiness. Our successors have broken bravely away from it; yet I confess to a flash of surprise whenever I meet Dr. Pritchett on his occasional visits to Washington, and reflect that he began life as a professional star-gazer—began life, mark you! not merely drifted into the calling after middle age. There is not about him the first suggestion of the frontispiece of the medical almanac. His star-gazing began when he was eighteen, and at twenty-five he was sent by the Government to New Zealand to observe the transit of Venus. He saw enough of stars before he was forty-five to avoid hitching his wagon to one, and settled down with his feet on the earth as president of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. He had already developed a remarkable faculty for attracting the notice of men of large authority and influence, among them Lyman J. Gage, Secretary of the Treasury in the McKinley Cabinet, who called him to Washington to take the superintendency of the United States Coast and Geodetic Survey, which needed overhauling in various parts of its mechanism. It was there the Technology trustees found him in 1900, when they brought him to Boston; but before he had been long in his new position the all-commanding Iron-Master made a bid for his services as trustee of the Carnegie Institution in Washington and president of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching.

Though within a stone's throw of sixty years of age, and compassing in his career a variety of experiences which would have over-ripened many a person of different constitution and temperament, you might take Pritchett to-day for a well-cared-for man of affairs not more than fifty years old. He has one of those faces that make no pretence of keeping faith with the calendar. It would take a discriminating physiognomist to detect now wherein it had changed materially since its thirtieth birthday, just as it would have required an expert then to estimate its age within twenty years. Its complexion is fresh enough to-day, and the hair and "Van Dycks" that frame it have always run enough to grays to leave the total effect somewhat puzzling. The dapper costume, the energetic gait, the alert manner, and the diplomatic address of this very modern professor are among the first things to impress you with his personality. In conversation, regardless of the direction it may take, you will find him at once well grounded in his own opinions and entirely tolerant towards yours, unless you trench too arrogantly upon some ground which is plainly his preserve and goad him into vigorous resistance. You presently take his measure as a man who, in ordinary circumstances, would far rather go over an obstacle, or around it, than waste time on a tedious and possibly futile effort to force it out of his path.

Whenever he has been placed in control of an office or institution, his first aim has been to humanize it—to bring it into active relations with the life of the present day. At the "Tech." he launched a number of such enterprises, like the study of architectural engineering on lines of insurance against the destruction or deterioration of buildings through the continually extending uses of electricity. The problems of the disposal of sewage and garbage and purification of water were made subjects for special courses of inquiry. Biological investigation was taken up on a fresh plan, by transfer from the laboratory to the open field. With an eye to future possibilities, particular attention was given, in the department of marine architecture, to naval construction, and arrangements were made with the Federal Government for entering yearly a few cadets from Annapolis to perfect themselves in this branch and join the constructors' corps in the navy. Not least in importance among the questions to which President Pritchett addressed himself was that of promoting a closer fellowship between professors and students by means of gatherings in their recreation hours, after the manner in vogue in German universities; but here he found his progress impeded by a protest from part of the community who interpreted his proposal to mean that the use of beer and tobacco was to be encouraged among the student body for sociability's sake. The newspaper paragraphers caught up the idea, and it required a long period of explanation to convince the remonstrants that no particular programme of refreshments or indulgences was included in his general scheme of fraternization.

Just what complete accomplishments are to be credited to Dr. Pritchett in his later associations it may be still too soon to estimate; there can be no doubt, however, in the mind of any one who has read the reports of the Teaching Foundation that he has sounded a new note there. Formal bul-

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letins on educational topics are not usually a line of light literature sought by the lay multitude; but Dr. Pritchett's, which bear the mark of his personal authorship, are as entertaining as a volume of light essays. They have the truly human touch; and they lift the cover off shams and dissect the elements of ineffectiveness, or point the way to better methods for worthy schools struggling under handicaps, in a fashion most refreshing. Their philosophic moderation, tinged with a transparent humor, constitutes one of their positive charms; for the temptation to aggressive reformers to mix a little spleen with their candor of speech must be at times too great for any but the best balanced to resist. VIEILLARD.

Literature

THE "EUGENICS" OF WAR.

War's Aftermath: A Preliminary Study of the Eugenics of War. By David Starr Jordan and Harvey Ernest Jordan. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. 75 cents.

The fundamental inspiration of this work is the proposition that all war is intrinsically bad. The authors also seem sure that war's consequences are invariably evil. These views are set forth with the fervor and occasional inexactness of expression conventionally known as feminine, and, now and then, with a flaw in logic that more distinctly marks the special advocate than distinguishes the judge. As used, "aftermath" is a figure not closely representing the yeoman's definition, and "eugenics" in the sub-title and in the text assumes a sense that outrages etymology and subverts its common and its academic meaning of race-culture. It is constantly made to imply generative degradation and is occasionally replaced by "contra-selection," expressing deterioration or debasement. Carried away by the sight and study of Macedonian horrors, the writer of the introduction, the chief director of the World's Peace Foundation, makes it a rhapsodical invective against war as war, not a direct argument for peace. His violence weakens a justifiable denunciation of warfare in the abstract, and confidence in his judgment is impaired by his lack of logical precision and of literary balance.

Logical discussion of so grave a question as the fundamentals of war requires catholic comprehension. One may acknowledge war to be an evil, but may justly hold that some wars have been lighter evils than the ills thereby removed or avoided. But when acceptance is demanded (p. 95) for Franklin's dictum that "there never was a good war," the author's commentary, that "no bad war ever gave way to a good peace," immediately sets up an inexorable dilemma. From the premises (1) that all wars are bad, and (2) that from no bad war a good peace can follow, the conclusion is necessary that, once war, there can be no beneficent peace—a practical, if not a logical, *reductio ad absurdum*. The sole avoidance is to suppose that the text misrepresents the thought.

Because of its extent and its intimate relation to ourselves, the struggle for Secession is drawn upon through analysis of existing demographic conditions for continuing examples of the consequences of that war and, by inference, of other wars. Opening the study, the authors place (p. 2) the mortality for the whole country at "nearly a million of young men largely of superior social worth." Another estimate (p. 4) is seven hundred thousand, which, without explanation, is held to be too low by three hundred thousand, and thus for the second time the total is assumed to be one million not unequally divided. In a comment upon the war's continuing influence, is this remark (p. 21): "One is most profoundly impressed . . . with the . . . unutterable loss in the slaughter of a million of similar souls of knightly spirits before they could leave their princely stamp on human issue." Not only is the mortality for the third time set at a million, but the context implies, but does not affirm, that it all fell upon the defenders of the Confederacy, which, of course, was not the case, nor is it so meant. The construction is loose as well as florid, and here, at least, conjecture replaces evidence. Carefully compiled tables of the War Department, published in 1885 and easily accessible, set the aggregate deaths on the Union side from all causes as practically three hundred and sixty thousand, and conscientious estimates by the same experts, based upon the partly preserved military statistics of the Confederacy, assess the total Disunion mortality at three hundred thousand. The vital loss accepted by competent statisticians thus was about two-thirds of that herein assumed. This discrepancy of a third of a million in the deaths, even when distributed over four years among thirty-one and a half million whites (four and a half of military age), may fall within permissible statistical variation; but it shakes one's faith in the accuracy of a study a part of whose argument rests upon the total loss of life and the associated decrement of all kinds.

As a survey of the war's consequences over the whole South would require years, there was contemplated an intensive study of typical localities where the original wastage had been great, and there had followed minima of new manufacturing or other industries which might modify present conditions. There was first proposed for investigation what, with curious disregard of official nomenclature, is persistently styled "Spottsylvania" County, in Virginia. This wisely was rejected because social and economic changes there have tended to obscure the direct biological effects of the conflict; and it is noted here merely to suggest that the collegiate authors owe an apology to the *manes* of Sir Alexander Spotswood for this misuse of his historic name. Rockbridge County, in Virginia, and Cobb County, in Georgia, were then chosen as the crucibles whose dross and slag would best show the operation of war's furnace. Rockbridge is in the upper valley. Its activities before the war were those of the small farmer, and have undergone "no serious economic changes." Cobb County is described as "a rural district on the line of Sherman's march, and therefore laid waste during the war." Cobb County was fought over in Gen. Sherman's advance upon Atlanta, which lies in another county to the southward. It is not in that line of progress to the sea commonly known as "Sherman's march." Hence "therefore," as just employed, may indicate bias rather than knowledge, or it may simply be another example of historic inexactness. Nevertheless, the Federal and Confederate armies that marched and fought through June, 1864, from Kenesaw to the Chattahoochee, subjected the region to the inevitable, whether or not intentional, adversities that accompany hostilities. These justify making the territory an example of the effect of war upon a community that was previously at rest and whose later condition has been little modified by economic changes not directly due to the war itself. But whatever was learned through the investigations in these selected localities has not been revealed. Nothing is said of the conditions in Cobb County, except that they will be treated elsewhere. Of Rockbridge, it is only mentioned that complete records of the local military companies are extant. There follows a superficial commentary on desertion, with no reference to the oath of enlistment or to principles, and little or none to company discipline, to *esprit*, or to the efficient causes of that heinous crime.

Apart from the Macedonian chapter, the book is substantially a discussion of the answers to thirty propositions (therein reproduced) that had been "sent broadcast over the South to the surviving Confederate officers and other men of intelligence, for comment and criticism." "To the surviving Confederate officers" is more likely to be a fault of construction than to be the fact. The propositions, "usually in the words of some thinking veteran," are condensations of opinions elicited from hundreds of representative men, interested spectators of the war, of much that immediately preceded it, and of all, as they prefer to express it, that has meanwhile "transpired." Beginning, the authors thank "these Confederate heroes for their painstaking efforts to help us in our attempt honestly to verify the final and most intimate argument against war, namely, that it robs a country of its fundamental asset, its best young citizenship, the potential ancestors of the 'thoroughbreds' of the coming generation." This definitely announces that the subject-matter is an ex-parte presentation of the negative when war offers itself as a solution of a grave public question. It entirely ignores the possibility that the warrior may uphold against violence high ideals, and defend, even with his life, persons and principles upon whose conservation depends, besides the somatic, the intellectual and spiritual life and the vital prosperity of a community.

The speculations thus grouped assume that various evils are the more or less continuous

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consequences of the war, and that otherwise these would not have befallen. They range from the direct mortality of the field to such indirect happenings as an unusual death-rate among war-widows. Sherman's alleged epigram is accepted as a finality, and from it war *quâ* war becomes the parent of all ill. Space permits few selections. The first proposition, weak historically and logically, is "The leading young men of the South were a part of select companies of militia, and these were the first to enlist." No lesson is drawn from this in terms; but its tone leads to the inference that, being nominal soldiers, they promptly responded to the call to arms. The unexpressed conclusion seems to be that, as war is an evil, so the organized constituents of an army are evil agents, and young men taking part therein set a bad example in proportion to their social standing. Now, away from the larger towns, the organized militia in the South was insignificant, and the underlying motive was not war, but protection against possible servile insurrection. Thus in the great State of North Carolina—of 60,000 square miles and a population, in 1860, of 680,000—there were only six companies at the beginning of the war. All through the South the rural companies were virtually merely armed posses for possible summons by the sheriff. In the cities, the "crack" companies, as the Blues of Richmond, the Chatham Artillery of Savannah, the Washington Artillery of New Orleans, were essentially social clubs in martial disguise, with the excuse of a negro uprising in the background. When secession became imminent, of course, a multitude of military organizations sprang up. But they did not cause the war; they were its product.

It is unfortunate that praiseworthy desire for peace should be so blended in the minds of certain emotional advocates with hatred of abstract war, that they fail to admit that any desirable results may be attainable by force. Filled with zeal, itself a form of contention, they seem blind and deaf to example and argument. Nevertheless, our own country owes its independent existence and its unimpaired unity to two righteous wars. Because violent and abrupt death is undesirable, that should not prevent its infliction in self-defence upon armed robbers. In the protection against unprovoked destruction of collective homes and the institutions that secure them, war is as laudable as the defence of the family units. Philosophers and patriots endure, for the advantages expected to follow, financial loss, corporeal suffering, and death itself, the essential elements of conflict, against those who repudiate arbitration and assault without cause. Rapine and merciless destruction are no more the necessary concomitants of war than the *auto da fé* is for the propagation of religion. The argument against physical suffering endured in war is equally applicable to the relief of such suffering through beneficent surgery. In each case, when properly applied, relief and progress follow. The infallible Teacher has said: "When the strong man fully armed guardeth his own palace, his goods are in peace." He is prepared for armed resistance, and there is no suggestion that such resistance should not be made. David's psalm of thankfulness gives no intimation that combat in a good cause is censurable. "Blessed be Jehovah my rock, who teacheth my hands to war and my fingers to fight."

CURRENT FICTION.

Sally on the Rocks. By Winifred Boggs. New York: Brentano's.

The publishers' "catchy" description on the cover, and chapter headings such as "I did some hustle for a husband," give a misleading notion of the character of this story. It is, as these things suggest, a trifle vulgar, but it is also exceptionally clever. The heroine, of somewhat dubious antecedents, has made a living as a third-rate artist in Paris. At thirty-one she finds herself penniless and thrown out of employment by the war. She sees before her a choice between marriage and a less respectable use of her personal attractions. The alternative being granted, she chooses the better part, and selects as the object of her pursuit Alfred Bingley, a highly respectable bachelor of forty, with a comfortable income, living in the village of Little Crampton, where she has friends. Bingley is a novel and amusing person. Self-satisfied, old-maidish, and fat, he is convinced that it is time for him to marry; and in this matter he is guided by a manuscript volume of maxims left him by his mother. This, magnificently bound and inscribed with gold letters, "*The Book*," he religiously consults on all appropriate occasions. Since he is pursued not only by Sally, but by an eligible widow, these occasions are pretty numerous; and the sharp warnings of the late Mrs. Bingley—her maxims are mostly "don'ts"—plunge him into deeper and deeper perplexity. His ultimate emancipation from *The Book* furnishes a most amusing scene.

As to Sally, there are two other men in the story; one a former accepted lover, the other a soldier, cashiered for disobedience, whom she saves from suicide. The village gossip, vigorously caricatured, plays the part of villain. Sally herself is an entertaining if not always plausible mixture of sordidness, good sportsmanship, and a kind of aspiration. The book is crisply written, and shows unusual talent for caricature.

The Invisible Might. By Robert Bowman. New York: McBride, Nast & Co.

This is a tale of the Russia of Mr. George Kennan, the land of oppression and suppression, the antechamber, for free spirits, of Siberia. The "invisible might" is the power of the police, with its careful surveillance and its summary "administrative orders." The victim in this instance is the young wife of an ambitious Russian diplomat. She has fallen under suspicion through friendship with a woman of advanced ideas, and is virtually imprisoned upon her husband's country estate. There comes an English engineer, who develops an abandoned copper mine on the estate. Work is found thereby for the starving peasants, and the whole neighborhood begins to prosper. But the husband's local agent does not approve of this, since it threatens his personal authority and his means of dishonest gain. With Oriental cunning he puts the young mistress into such a position and mood as to provoke a single rash speech, which, reported duly at Petersburg, is enough to condemn her to exile. The Englishman tries to rescue her, but the pair are caught before they have crossed the border, the woman carried off to Siberia, and the man banished forever from Russia. After eight years word comes to him that she is living in a certain tiny Siberian village, to which, under the disguise of an American journalist, he makes his way. The husband is now dead, and the lover is determined to make sure of whatever happiness may remain for them. The scene in which he finds the woman in her cottage, sodden with drink and almost indifferent to him, is a terrible one. He makes all allowances; she has been driven to vodka as a saviour from madness. He insists that she must fly with him and become his wife. But she sees the hopelessness of the attempt; and it is she who, by a woman's means, conquers in the end. The story is told simply and tensely, by one who is evidently familiar with Russian life and with the Russian novelists.

The Young Absalom. By E. Charles Vivian. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.

The thriving and not too scrupulous manufacturer and his visionary reforming son grow a trifle threadbare as objects of fiction. "The Turmoil" was one of the latest American renderings, and apparently met the enthusiastic hearing which a great number of persons are always willing to give to an old familiar fable with an up-to-date flavor. The young man, Absalom, who is an English young man, and whose unfigurative name is Paul, returns from Cambridge with a head full of that undergraduate socialism which so literally and fatally bases itself upon Christian theory. He finds that the men in his father's employ are ill-housed and ill-paid. The father is devoted to the son, but cannot agree with his views. They part, and the son deliberately becomes leader of a strike in the paternal "works." He has already lost the maiden of aristocratic lineage whom he might otherwise have married; she is unable to share his interest in the populace. It is now for him to lose, through the machinations of the villain, the fight for his people, and (a handy finish for dreamers) his life. The villain is, of course, rich—he is the other member of the manufacturing firm, who cannot permit the father's affection for his son to endanger the business. Incidentally, he uses the good name of his own wife to effect Paul's downfall. When

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Paul is slain by a motor, the father, again of course, yields everything he could not yield while his son was alive. It is all (reflects the jaded one, wearily) pretty trite in matter, and in manner not sufficiently fresh to conceal that triteness. On the whole, a book of less merit than most of those importations which its publisher has ventured within the past five years.

CHRISTIAN UNITY.

Restatement and Reunion. By Burnett Hillman Streeter. New York: The Macmillan Co. $1.

Marching Men. By Leonidas Robinson. Boston: Sherman, French & Co. $1.25 net.

Modern Theology and the Preaching of the Gospel. By William Adams Brown. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.25.

Jesus and His Parables. By George Murray. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. $2 net.

The author of "Restatement and Reunion" was one of the principal contributors to "Foundations," a book which created a considerable stir in orthodox theological circles. The fact that he is Fellow, Dean, and lecturer on theology and classics in Queen's College, Oxford, is sufficient assurance of his scholarly qualifications. The title of his work indicates its general character. In sympathy with many of the conclusions of modern criticism, he writes, nevertheless, as a convinced Christian and churchman, while maintaining that, in the light of new knowledge, some modification in the text of ancient formularies is an absolutely essential preliminary to the establishment of anything resembling Christian unity. He does not hesitate to charge the Church of England—which, he says, ought to stand primarily for charity, sanity, and the love of truth—with upholding some of the chief obstacles to it, especially in the matter of inter-communion. Absolute unity he regards as neither possible nor desirable, as it could only be imposed by a dogmatic authority, which inevitably would provoke worse revolt and confusion. He suggests, as the wisest and most practicable policy, progressive federations first between the various sects within the leading Protestant communions, and then between those communions themselves. This, he thinks, might pave the way to an agreement with the Orthodox Eastern churches. This accomplished, the Roman Church would be deprived of its numerical preponderance, and might be induced to make concessions. In considering Church and State he gives a masterly summary of the correlation between the ecclesiastical and political histories of Rome and Constantinople.

In "Marching Men" Dr. Robinson considers current problems of childhood, pulpit, and pew. He displays rare common-sense in his remarks upon the mischief done to religion by the Puritanical spirit, which has invested it with a Pharisaical solemnity and dissociated it from the innocent joy of life, especially in the case of children. An ardent supporter of the principles of Froebel, Pestalozzi, and Dr. Montessori, he maintains that dogma forced upon children is a fertile source of infidelity in adults. To the clergy, as teachers of young and old, he recommends diligent study of modern psychology. Fervently evangelical in spirit, the main thesis of his book is the inspiration and organic unity of the Bible as a whole, which, he maintains, are not affected by modern literary and scientific criticism, much of which he regards as well founded but immaterial. Particularly interesting is his citation of Judaism as a lesson to Christian dogmatists.

In his "Modern Theology and Preaching of the Gospel" Dr. Brown, professor of systematic theology in the Union Theological Seminary, discusses the present opportunities and duties of the churches. This book exhibits spiritual vision and broad toleration, combined with forceful and attractive logic. Arguing that modern theology—of which his definition, it may be remarked, is somewhat indefinite—has actually been of essential service in clarifying and broadening, and thus strengthening, the true Christian perception, the author, with a studious avoidance of dogmatic assertion, maintains the authority of the Bible as the history of a progressive revelation, which had Christ for its chief illustration and which is still proceeding. For the proof of the divinity of Christ he relies not only upon the fulfilment in his person of the prophecies of the Old Testament and the record of the New, but upon the perfect realization in his character and conduct of the God-like man, intensely human and divinely spiritual, whose production was the object of the whole creative scheme. To further this purpose, he goes on to argue, is the duty and privilege of the whole Christian body, working under the direction of the churches, the repositories of sacred truths. For these the present imperative duty is the abandonment of futile disputes over man-made creeds and formularies and organization for the effective propagation and establishment of essential Gospel principles.

Dr. Murray, in discussing the parables of Jesus, groups them under five heads: Grace in the Individual Life, Pharisaism the Foe, Fellowship with God the Ideal, The Course of the Kingdom, and Discipline and Judgment. It is a somewhat arbitrary, but, on the whole, convenient and satisfactory arrangement. There is nothing particularly new in his exposition, but he writes with a thorough comprehension of the aptness and significance of all the minor details of plan and circumstances, and with clearness and conviction. In tone he is broadly evangelical, and in his interpretation of some of the less obvious meanings ingeniously definite.

The similarity of intent and, broadly speaking, of argument, in these books, representing different schools of religious thought, indicates a growing conviction, even among theologians, that the efficacy of the simple message of the Gospels is not increased by the multiplication of ecclesiastical interpretations and ordinances.

THE DATA OF POLITICS.

Bodies Politic and their Governments. By Basil Edward Hammond. Cambridge University Press; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

This volume is not, as its title might imply to the unwary, a study of contemporary States and Governments. It is rather a contribution to the data of political evolution, a sketch-book of movements in the history of statecraft, with a genealogy of political institutions based thereupon. About a dozen years ago the author published his "Outlines of Comparative Politics," in which he began with a new classification of political communities and then proceeded to group his historical surveys around each type or category. The present work is not a mere revision of that useful volume: it is a complete re-writing of it, with much new material and a reversal of the method pursued. The historical surveys now precede, and the classifications follow.

By far the larger portion of Mr. Hammond's discussion is devoted to a description of ancient and mediæval governments: Greek and Roman political institutions take up, in fact, more than half his pages. Here he is on familiar ground, but his very familiarity is to some extent an obstacle, since the prolixity of detail often really obscures the panorama that he is striving to set before the eyes of his readers. Useful summaries are given from time to time, however, and these help greatly to clear the course of the narrative. The author believes it to be demonstrable that, in ancient communities particularly, the parentage or derivation of a political institution often exercised a paramount influence in determining its character. Hence he arranges his bodies politic in genealogical tables which illustrate, as it were, the pedigree of each.

The later chapters endeavor to supply the data for conclusions on the relationship and descent of political institutions in modern states. Europe gets the bulk of the author's attention, but the Government of the United States receives twenty pages of portrayal, on most of which there are, unfortunately, some serious misstatements. Not all of these errors can well be catalogued here; mention of a few will indicate how easily the author has slipped into pitfalls that might readily have been avoided. The words "original jurisdiction" in the Federal Constitution do not necessarily convey "sole jurisdiction" (p. 486); it is puerile to say that the States of the Union may draft their own Constitutions subject to the single condition that they cannot "set up a king" (p. 387); and it is not correct to state broadly that the lower house of Congress "must be elected by all the citizens" (p. 488). In one place we are told that "by the year 1789 the Constitution had been ratified by conventions in all the thirteen States" (p. 485); a little later we learn, more accurately, that "by 1790 all the thirteen com-

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munities had ratified" (p. 490). Readers may well open their eyes at the statement that the first ten amendments "only made clear what was doubtful" in the original Constitution, and that the delegates in the Constitutional Convention would probably have incorporated these amendments "if they had occurred to their minds" (p. 490). "Each Federal Court," Mr. Hammond discovers, "has one officer, a marshal, to put its decisions into execution," but lest it be thought that our judicial decisions go unexecuted, the author quickly explains that "if the marshal is impeded in his duty" he can "summon Federal troops from Washington, the seat of the Federal Government" (p. 493).

With reference to the growth and government of American cities, it would be hard to crowd into three pages a more absurd chronicle than this volume gives us. Let a short quotation suffice to show how far the author's study has been careful or his judgment sound:

> The thirteen States that made the Union had the power to rule their cities, and while the cities were small they made use of it effectively; now that the cities have attained to great size and wealth it is of no avail, because the cities partly by numbers of votes and partly by bribery and threats control the legislatures of the States; . . . The cities are independent, or are city States, in almost every particular except that they wage no wars, and thus are like the Greek maritime cities before 480 B. C. . . . It is not then surprising that they have class governments, or perhaps I should say, bastard class governments. . . . New York can afford to keep an adulterine class government because it can never need to defend itself in war (p. 499).

One may well be inclined to fight shy of the "pedigrees of bodies politic" if they are to be compiled from such data as these!

THE JAPANESE IMMIGRANT APPRAISED.

The Japanese Problem in the United States. By H. A. Millis. New York: The Macmillan Co. $1.50.

There was a call for a discussion, up to date, of the highly important Japanese question, based on indisputable facts, gathered from the whole extent of the field, and interpreted by one who is at home in such discussion. Happily, these conditions are realized in the present treatise. Professor Millis was chosen by the Commission on Relations with Japan, appointed by the Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America, as a specialist who had already given time and attention to the subject of immigration. Five years ago he was employed as agent in charge of the investigations made by the Immigration Commission in the Rocky Mountain and Pacific Coast States. The book does not supersede that excellent piece of work, "The Japanese American Problem," published last year by Dr. Sidney L. Gulick, to which it may be regarded as supplementary. In literary finish and other valuable qualities it is distinctly inferior to its predecessor. The absence of an alphabetical index, for instance, is a drawback.

The writer's point of view naturally differs from that of Dr. Gulick, who, as professor in a Japanese institution, regards the question from the side of fair play for the Japanese immigrant. Professor Millis, on the other hand, is interested in the Japanese immigrant as one of a group comprising Chinese, Mexican, Russian, Austrian, Filipino, Hindu, and even Spaniard and Porto Rican. The Japanese compares favorably with any of them, being "intelligent, studious, cleanly in his habits, generous, temperate, moral, law-abiding, industrious, and ambitious" (p. 229). It is in the salmon canneries of Alaska that Japanese laborers make the poorest showing, and "are universally regarded as much less desirable than the Chinese, and even inferior to the Filipinos, who have recently engaged in that industry." Perhaps the reason is that the climate is too cold for their liking, and that an inferior type goes north. Japanese civilization suits the warmer temperate zone. It is to be noted that the leaders of Japan in the past half-century have all come from the extreme south of the islands, from Nagato, Satsuma, and Tosa. The race seems to reach its limit of natural expansion northward at the Straits of Tsugaru, separating the main island from Hokkaido, which is a colony in the Roman military sense of the term.

The Japanese problem in this country almost limits itself to California, where the climate is thoroughly congenial to Japanese habits. About two-thirds of the whole Japanese population in the United States are found in the boundaries of this State. Next in order comes the State of Washington, with a total of 14,794, or less than one-sixth of the whole. These figures give a percentage of 2.29 in the total population of California, and of 1.06 in that of Washington. Oregon has never particularly attracted Japanese labor, and no anti-Japanese sentiment has displayed itself in this State, where the Japanese form only .47 per cent. of the whole population.

Unfortunately—a point commented upon by the writer—the Japanese found themselves at the outset, as immigrants, confronted by a latent hostility, being regarded as Chinese of a different stripe. Some of Professor Millis's statements, however, require modification. So far from the two languages being alike, they differ utterly in essentials, although the Japanese have adopted Chinese ideographs for the written language, and from these have evolved a syllabary for their own tongue. Indeed, the burden laid upon Japanese students by the need of memorizing four or five thousand Chinese ideographs before they can be recognized as literary adepts—a task infinitely more alien and heavy than the acquisition of Latin by the European lad—is already proving a bar to the return to Japan of Japanese born in this country. They shrink from entering a life where so much wearisome memorizing would be a necessary preliminary to social and intellectual influence. The process of Americanizing these young people has been going on much more effectively than is generally believed, although it is patent to keen observers from the other side of the Pacific.

From what source, by the way, does Professor Millis draw his ethnological data? He tells us (p. 239) that the Japanese are "a mixture of Malay, Mongolian, Tartar, Caucasian, and negro, or Negrito, elements." This admixture of negro or Negrito blood is not even a matter of discussion in standard treatises like the histories of Murdoch or Brinkley, although their findings are by no means in agreement. Racially so similar to the Chinese, they differ radically in language and polity. The relationship between rulers and people, close and friendly in Japan, in China is remote and "unkindly." Thirty years ago the State of California was able to rid herself of the Chinese menace in a remarkably easy fashion, for the Chinese Government is helpless to intervene when its subjects are abused, and is deaf to such appeals. No government more fully recognizes this claim than the Japanese, and none is better prepared to assert it. Hence the danger in the whole situation from the Californian having formed a wrong estimate of the "Oriental." The Japanese has shown himself "cocky." Moreover, as Professor Millis points out, the Chinese laborer was quite willing to live in a "bunk-house," while the Japanese seeks and welcomes opportunities to live like a "white man." As the author explains in one of those badly constructed sentences which mar the quality of the book: "With ambition to rise, and little capital required to purchase the few implements needed and to pay the initial rent, and with the possibility of chattel loans on crops, it is only natural that the Japanese should in many cases have become independent farmers."

While the solicitude of his home Government in watching over his interests has increased the hostility to this new unsubmissive type of Oriental, he has had no powerful church to look after his interests and aid in "assimilating" him. The Irishman, who was so unpopular sixty years ago, had the Roman Catholic Church ready to stand by him; so was it later with the Italian immigrant. Only a limited number of Japanese are closely associated with the evangelical churches, and they are apt to receive a frigid welcome at the regular Sunday services. The process of assimilation will necessarily be slow, and is not likely to take place, as Professor Millis concedes, with large numbers. But a valuable quantum of the Japanese resident population ought to receive every chance of assimilation, for "the evil of race mixture is pretty much of a bogie."

The whole question, indeed, must sooner or later be taken from State Legislatures and dealt with by the Federal Government. The so-called "gentlemen's agreement" of

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1908 works well, but in its very nature it is only temporary. What supersedes it must also come direct from Washington, and be national in its scope and application. Professor Millis recommends a general immigration law such as is outlined in Dr. Gulick's "The American Japanese Problem" (pp. 284-286), with some modifications. "Amend the existing law," thus runs his suggestion, "so that except in the case of Canada, Newfoundland, Mexico, and Cuba, the number of immigrants admitted in any one year shall not exceed 5 per cent. of the total of those who had taken their 'second papers' and the native-born of one or both parents born in the given country, as recorded in the Census of 1910. Provided, however, that the maximum number in no case shall be less than 1,000, in order that immigration from new countries shall not be unduly restricted." He supports the contention that no alien should be permitted to enter this country without being eligible to citizenship.

That this exhaustive treatise, written from another standpoint, should be in such substantial agreement with Dr. Gulick's book, and that the final practical recommendation in both should find favor with an unsympathetic critic like President Benjamin I. Wheeler, are facts worth pondering over. If the country gives Japan a substantial cause of grievance, the result will be disastrous, not only in chilling the friends of representative government who are at present waging a hard struggle in her assemblies, but also in stimulating the already too aggressive military party.

A RUSSIAN SOCIALIST ON THE WAR.

La Russie et la guerre. Par Grégoire Alexinsky. Paris: Librairie Armand Colin. 3.50 fr.

Gregor Alexinsky, already known to English readers by his "Modern Russia," is a leader of the Russian Social-Democrats, that is, of a party by principle opposed not only to wars between nations, but to any emphasis on national boundaries, a party that aims to unite the proletariat of all nations in a war against international capital. He is, of course, a fervent opponent of the Russian autocracy. Yet in this book he defends the justice of the Russian cause and looks forward with exultant hope to the triumph of the Russian armies. Hence his discussion often faces both ways: the Social-Democratic Deputies in the Duma showed fine attachment to their principles when they declined to vote for the war credits, but the Russian workingmen have been nobly guided by patriotism rather than by the foolish advice of "intellectuals" who wished for the defeat of Russia as a means of furthering revolution within its borders. When Alexinsky speaks of the Russian masses as "preserved from revolutionary hysteria by their political conscience and the sureness of their instinct" (p. 217), he copies the accents of the reactionary League of Russian People, whom he detests.

Despite this wobbling attitude—perhaps rather because of it—Alexinsky has done the world a service by this book. Russian political parties are not so well known to us as those of England, France, and Germany, and Alexinsky gives a clear idea of their behavior during the present crisis. Stating frankly his own position, he lets us see the power of tendencies in Russian life for which he has not even tolerance. His plea is simple. After its defeat in the Far East, Russia took renewed interest in Balkan affairs, but did not adopt an aggressive policy. Not to speak of Slavophile sympathies for the small Balkan states, Russia was bound to resist any steps towards Germanic domination of the peninsula. If Constantinople should ultimately fall under Germany or Austria, Russia's market for her grain could be entirely cut off in time of war, since the Baltic is commanded by the German fleet. The war, once begun, should be supported—and, with small exceptions, is supported—by all classes of Russian subjects. A German victory would check Russian economic progress, making the country fatally dependent on Germany, and would thereby hinder the revolutionary movement. It would be a blow not only to the Russian government, but to the whole Russian people. A revolutionary outbreak accelerated by foreign disasters, like that in Russia after the Japanese War, risks being weak and abortive.

Nor would a defeat of Russia be of benefit to the subject peoples now oppressed by the Czar's officials. Despite varied currents of opinion, Little Russians, Poles, Letts, Jews, and Armenians have all in the main been loyal to Russia. One reason is indicated by a quotation from a Lettish writer, whose people have had experience with both sorts of rulers:

> The Germans oppress in a manner that is systematic and thereby always efficacious. Moreover, their haughty contempt for all that is not German, and the logic and sangfroid with which they carr[illegible] their persecutions wherever they domin[illegible] make them intolerable. The Russians a[illegible] less consistent by nature, their spirit is not so well disciplined, they are guided more by the heart, and are therefore less to be feared as oppressors. Sometimes they strike cruel and painful blows, but they also occasionally relent. They are more rude and brutal in their manners, but at bottom they are more humane than the Germans, who often hide under a perfectly courteous exterior designs inspired by a ferocious hatred. (Pp. 196, 197.)

The Russian Government has promised autonomy to the Poles, and one may trust that advanced public opinion, aided by the influence of England and France, will make it keep its word. Meanwhile, despite some wise measures, like the suppression of the liquor traffic, the authorities have not even tried to conciliate public opinion by a political amnesty. When in control of Galicia, it is asserted that they immediately began a persecution of the Ruthenians. For a reversal of all this Alexinsky can only hope. Bad as the present Russian Government is, it deserves support, since its defeat would be a calamity for the people as a whole. Whether or not one agrees with Alexinsky's theories, one must admit that he views the situation in a manly way. His summary of his position suggests rather a romantic poet than a Marxian materialist:

> The young Russian armies are defending the cause of European democracy and of human progress. But they are under the command of a senile autocratic power. It is a misfortune for us Russian democrats and revolutionists that the military forces of our country are in the hands of the Tsarism. But for the democracy of Europe, for the peoples of Serbia, Belgium, France, and England, it is fortunate that millions of Russian soldiers will offer until death a tenacious resistance to the aggression of Germany and its allies. Truly a tragic contradiction!
>
> How can this contradiction be explained away?
>
> I find a simple and complete answer to this difficult question in a letter written by a Russian to his son, fallen on the field of battle:
>
> "We shall not live for ever in this world. What is the existence of a human being? A drop of water in the ocean of life of our glorious Russia. We shall not exist forever, while she must have a long and prosperous life. I know that we shall be forgotten, and that our happy descendants will not remember those who sleep in soldiers' tombs—but what does it matter?" (Pp. 361, 362.)

An English edition of this book, translated by Bernard Miall, is announced (Scribner; $3 net).

Drama

"THE ROAD TO HAPPINESS."

After a run of two years about the country, "The Road to Happiness" has come to New York with William Hodge, who is remembered for his success in "The Man from Home," in the principal part. When the work of Mr. Hodge is disposed of, little remains to be said, for the play, though fortified by several other picturesque types, is obviously built around him. The piece cannot be called a play at all, even if it provides a fairly amusing evening's entertainment, since the plot, except for a few minor workings, can be guessed in advance, and since rather arbitrary control is assumed of the action so as to keep the hero always on top. This Jim Whitman, whom Mr. Hodge impersonates, is a young carpenter, living in a farming community, who is blessed with ambition and sterling commonsense. It is the salt of his wisdom which makes the play what it is, for it has plenty of opportunity to precipitate itself in this community of bigotry and selfishness. As may be suspected, the entire village takes on a different aspect before the final curtain, as a result of the lessons in genuineness and tolerance which Jim has taught. Incidentally, mention should be made of one of the stage appurtenances—a big, fat hen, which perches throughout one act on a rafter in Ben Hardcastle's barn. Whereas, for a time, no play could be given without a shooting scene, and later, without a drug fiend, the present sea-

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son in New York is marked by an array of live stock. This play has the hen, a dog, and a horse; another puts much reliance upon a "rooster" and two dogs. F.

"COMMON CLAY."

It is not too much to say of this play that it might have been written by Sir Arthur Pinero, not a very good Pinero, the Pinero of, say, "Letty"—a play which deals in a strong, but rather unfinished, way with the temptations of a working girl. Both pieces present only the common stock of knowledge concerning the fundamental social wrongs inflicted on girls who are left unbuttressed by the courtesies granted to girls more fortunately placed. Both make much use of the same device in order to sharpen the contrast of the high-born and the lowly—the continual reminder given the hero by the heroine that the respect which he shows his sister is not granted to her. Both plays, too, throw a silly moral sop to the audience, though here it must be said that Mr. Cleves Kinkead had more justification than Sir Arthur, for he at least grants his heroine the chance for which she has always longed, namely, to wear finery. Nor does the resemblance end here. The emphasis which is placed, satirically, upon respectability and the privileges of a gentleman is Pinero's special brand—not Shaw's, not Henry Arthur Jones's. Certainly it is not the variety exhibited in the plays of Clyde Fitch.

The question of imitation need not be pressed to the point of making the imitation deliberate. It is enough to say that Mr. Kinkead must have heard the work of Pinero analyzed by Professor Baker, under whom he studied at Harvard, and that the play, though arresting, does not give the impression of being very original. It is not even American in flavor, except for certain business, notably the court-room scene, which it shares with other productions seen in New York during the past year or two.

The main situation may be stated more explicitly. Ellen Neal—a character impersonated with admirable sincerity by Jane Cowl—after an indiscretion committed with a man about town, determines to earn an honest living, and engages herself as housemaid in the fashionable Fullerton ménage. Here, as the curtain rises on a retiring-room during a ball, she is confronted by the intoxicated Coakley, the man who had caused her downfall. By him her past is revealed to Hugh Fullerton, a pampered son just home from college. Though Hugh is not the brute that Coakley is, he, too, is a "gentleman," and is not averse to leading a "man's life"; and though he means to treat Ellen fairly, it is evident at the close of the first act that she will yield to his passion. At the beginning of the second act Ellen is the mother of his child, and he is back from Europe, expecting to be confronted by the courts, for she is determined that her son shall have the advantages which he would have had if she had been legally married to Hugh. Here enter Judge Filson (John Mason), an old friend of the senior Fullerton, to whom the latter has gone for legal advice. Coakley has been brought to the Judge's office to remind Ellen of her first offence, but has the tables turned on him when Ellen's lawyer decides to prosecute him for having seduced the girl prior to the age of consent provided by the law.

The following act, which takes places in the court-room, is the "big" one of the play. It provides Miss Cowl with an opportunity for some excellent emotional acting when, stripped of her self-respect by the searching examination of Judge Filson, she in turn is lashed by her conscience, and is spurred on to upbraid society for its hypocrisies. A powerful climax is contrived by the admissions on the stand of Ellen's supposed mother that her real mother was the woman whom years ago the Judge himself had wronged. This disclosure had been so carefully prepared for by the author, who evidently wished to play fair with the audience, that to some, at least, it came as no surprise. Yet it must be admitted that the surprise is not of so much moment to the audience as is the chance to study its effect upon the Judge. In the hands of a competent actor like John Mason, the situation was rich with dramatic interest. Yet we must regret that Mr. Mason has acquired that easy American accomplishment of talking through his nose. At this juncture the play should have ended, with only the hope held out of a subsequent union with Hugh. But an epilogue there is, and everything is happily arranged for in the presence of the audience. F.

"THE HOUSE OF GLASS."

Mr. Max Marcin, the author of this play (Candler Theatre), has reverted to a dramatic type which was the usual thing in the days, not long ago, when the stage attempted to "show up" political bosses, police sergeants, captains of industry, and others like them. Those were the days of muckraking, and playwrights and audience alike forgot that an essential of sound drama is the portrayal of human beings. It was enough that the young writers were dealing with vital problems and were supposedly battling against the devil in an ingenious way. Mr. Marcin, too, has plenty of tricks in his kit. There are moments in this play when the audience holds its breath at thought of what is coming, but it is enough to say that the final impression given is one of dummies skilfully manipulated, and this in spite of some very good acting.

The theme on which the author hammers is naturally one which is uppermost to-day. We guess that it was suggested by the work of Mr. Osborne at Sing Sing. In any case, the play sets forth the alleged iniquities of placing a lasting stigma upon any one who has ever served a prison sentence. The story is ingeniously contrived, so as to keep the audience entirely clear about a complicated situation; yet to do this it has been necessary to make of the first act what is essentially a prologue. A stenographer has fallen in love with an attractive young fellow, and after an acquaintance of just two weeks is preparing to marry him, when he is arrested in her room on the charge of burglary. Certain jewels which he has left with her implicate her in the crime, and in spite of the fact that she is entirely innocent, she is sent to prison for three years, after half of which term she is released on parole. But shortly she breaks the parole and runs off to Kansas City, where she is seen after a lapse of eight years the happy wife of a prominent railway magnate. The latter naturally gravitates to New York, the scene of his wife's former troubles, and then begins the working out of the real dramatic interest of the piece. The husband, now president of one of the big railways, is relentlessly prosecuting an employee who has stolen from the company. All manner of influence exerted in the boy's behalf leaves him cold, until he learns from his wife's lips the story of her career, and the fact that a detective is bent upon getting her back in jail on account of the broken parole. Here is a situation which, *per se*, is powerful, but the author's characters are only so much invention, and he has also made them frightfully talky—a combination of defects which the excellent acting of Frederick Burt, as the husband, of Harry C. Browne, as attorney, and the uneven, but on the whole good, work of Mary Ryan as the wife, are unable to cope with. F.

Finance

LONDON AND THE NEW YORK MARKET

Having fallen on Wednesday of last week to $4.50 in the pound sterling—no less a depreciation from the normal parity than 7½ per cent.—the rate of exchange on London recovered violently. Before the close of the week, it was back to $4.71½, having retraced the downward steps, not only of last week, but of the week preceding. This advance still left the rate far below normal, but it indicated that influences bearing on the market do not all operate in one direction. For one thing, the British Government's fiscal agents at New York had in their hands, last week, $60,000,000 worth of American securities sent over from London on warships during August. It is practically certain that loans were raised in Wall Street on the collateral of these stocks and bonds, and the proceeds used to pay maturing claims against England in this market, without drawing exchange on London.

Simultaneously, it became known that the financial commissioners, sent from London to arrange for such operations on a larger scale, were already on the way. The market for exchange remained highly irregular and excited; but the course of rates reflected the financial community's feeling that last week's extreme decline took too many things for granted. Nevertheless, discussion as to the outcome of so bewildering a situation in international exchange continued, and with wide diversity of judgment. Would it be possible, after what has already taken place, for England to raise the much-discussed $500,000,000 loan in the United States, from the proceeds of which the manufacturers of munitions could be paid? If such a credit were established, would it be large enough to offset the pressure on exchange?

Opinion, even in conservative quarters, found itself in agreement on neither of these questions. Yet they can at least tentatively be answered. The answer to the question as to a $500,000,000 "New York credit," is that England can unquestionably raise it, but that the terms will be

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exacting—chiefly because of the long delay in grappling with the question. Our own Government, just twenty years ago, got itself into a similar scrape, through a similar procrastination. Our supply of gold was being exhausted through export to meet the abnormally adverse exchange rates.

In the end, the Government of 1895 had to apply to international bankers to establish a London credit, and to pay for it we had to sell Government bonds at a net rate of 3¾ per cent., when 3 per cents had been sold at par a few months before. England, too, will probably have to pay a considerably higher rate than her latest war loan bore; she will have to forego the income tax on the bonds thus issued; she will have to guarantee interest payment in dollars, and she may be asked to put up security collateral. On such a basis, certainly $500,000,000 could be raised. Had the negotiations been opened six months ago, the thing could have been done without collateral. But the present attitude of our banks towards the operation is clearly due to misgiving caused by the random talk of "British credit" which has accompanied the spectacular break in sterling exchange.

Whether $500,000,000 would be more than a temporary stop-gap, is a question which cannot be answered, unless one knew how long the war will last. But if exchange rates could be restored to something like normal figures, another borrowing, if necessary, would be far more simple. It was so with our Government after the episode of 1895. For when the immediate crisis in exchange had been averted, through the London operation, and the outflow of gold had been held in check during a series of months, confidence was so far restored that a new and very large loan, offered in New York city, drew heavy subscriptions from European investors.

If England were to encounter difficulties in the operation, would her investors sell the rest of their American securities? On this point, also, widely opposing views exist in the most experienced quarters. Among such holders of our stocks and bonds, there are investors who wish to snatch the abnormal profit on exchange, and there are investors who wish to shift their funds into British war bonds. But there are also investors who believe in keeping a reserve investment in a neutral state, or who regard American securities as attractive, because of the country's present immense financial prestige. Even among English financiers and public men, some would urge or compel such sales, in order to regulate exchange; others regard American securities as an anchor to windward which London ought to hold.

It is largely a question of duration of the European conflict. If peace were to return within the space of a few months, England would probably still retain something like a thousand millions of our stocks and bonds. But if the end of a protracted war were to see them nearly all back in American hands, yet sustained in value here by the new resources of our plethoric money market, the economic outcome would be logical.

All things considered, it would appear to be at least conceivable that the "gold inflation theory" and the "foreign liquidation theory," pointing individually to opposite results on the Stock Exchange, might result, when operating jointly, in a happy equilibrium. And meantime, it remains to be seen whether England, by the pledge of her private or governmental credit in our market, will not manage to solve, for the time at any rate, the problem of exchange.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK

FICTION.

Balmer, E. A Wild Goose Chase. Duffield. $1.25 net.
Barr, A. E. The Measure of a Man. Appleton. $1.35 net.
Bindloss, H. Harding of Allenwood. Stokes. $1.30 net.
Brady, C. T. A Baby of the Frontier. Revell. $1.25 net.
Cooper, E. Living up to Billy. Stokes. $1 net.
Crane, F. Just Human. Lane. $1 net.
Crockett, S. R. Hal o' The Ironsides. Revell. $1.25 net.
Foote, M. H. The Valley Road. Houghton Mifflin. $1.35 net.
Foster-Melliar, R. A. Blindstone. Dutton. $1.25 net.
Grant, R. The High Priestess. Scribner. $1.35 net.
Guiterman, A. The Laughing Muse. Harper. $1 net.
Harben, W. N. The Inner Law. Harper. $1.35 net.
Hope, A. A Young Man's Year. Appleton. $1.35 net.
Kelland, C. B. Mark Tidd in Business. Harper. $1 net.
Lane, Mrs. J. Maria Again. Lane. $1 net.
Lewis, S. The Trail of the Hawk. Harper. $1.35 net.
Me: A Book of Remembrance. Anonymous. Century Co.
Oppenheim, E. P. The Way of These Women. Boston: Little, Brown. $1.35 net.
Perry, M. Zerah: A Tale of Old Bethlehem. The Abingdon Press. 50 cents net.
Quiller-Couch, A. T. Nicky-Nan, Reservist. Appleton. $1.35 net.
Rankin, C. W. The Cinder Pond. Holt. $1.25 net.
Sage, W. A Maid of Old Virginia. Revell. $1.25 net.
Stacpoole, H deV. The Pearl Fishers. Lane. $1.30 net.
Strahan, K. C. Peggy-Mary. Duffield. $1.25 net.
Sullivan, F. W. Alloy of Gold. McBride. $1.35 net.
Verrill, A. H. Uncle Abner's Legacy. Holt. $1.35 net.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Beggs, G. H. The Four in Crete. Abingdon Press. $1.25 net.
Bullard, F. L. Tad and his Father. Little, Brown. 50 cents net.
Douglas, N. Old Calabria. Houghton Mifflin. $4 net.
Gardiner, A. G. The War Lords. The Wayfarer's Library. Dutton. 40 cents net.
Huberich, C. H., and King, R. The Prize Code of the German Empire. Baker, Voorhis & Co. $2.50 net.
Lyons, A. N. Kitchener Chaps. Lane. 50 cents net.
Mason, A. B. Tom Strong, Jr. Holt. $1.25 net.
Tomlinson, P. G. In Camp on Bass Island. Scribner. $1.25 net.
Verrill, A. H. In Morgan's Wake. Holt. $1.35 net.
Young, S. H. Alaska Days with John Muir. Revell. $1 net.

RELIGION AND PHILOSOPHY.

Cushing, M. P. Baron D'Holbach. A Study of Eighteenth Century Radicalism in France. New York: Columbia University.
Flewelling, R. T. Personalism and the Problems of Philosophy. Methodist Book Concern. $1 net.
Great Christian Doctrines. Edited by James Hastings. Scribner. $3 net.
Hobhouse, L. T. Morals in Evolution. Holt. $3.25 net.
Phythian-Adams, W. J. Mithraism. Open Court Pub. Co. 40 cents.
Prince, L. B. Spanish Mission Churches of New Mexico. Torch Press. $1.50 net.
Schechter, S. Seminary Addresses and Other Papers. Cincinnati, O.: Ark Pub. Co.

GOVERNMENT AND ECONOMICS.

Cody, S. How to Deal with Human Nature in Business. Funk & Wagnalls. $2 net.
Giddings, F. H. The Western Hemisphere in the World of To-morrow. Revell. 35 cents net.

BIOGRAPHY AND HISTORY.

Barrington, Mrs. R. The Works and Life of Walter Bagehot. Vols. 1-10. Longmans, Green. $25 net.
Charmes, F. La Guerre 1914-15. L'Allemagne Contre l'Europe. Paris: Perrin et Cie.
Clement, E. W. A Short History of Japan. University of Chicago Press. $1 net.
Harrer, G. A. Studies in the History of the Roman Province of Syria. Princeton University Press.
Life of Benvenuto Cellini. Edited by A. Padovan. Milan, Italy: Ulrico Hoepli.
Phillipson, D. Max Lilienthal: American Rabbi. Bloch Pub. Co.
Shaw, A. H. The Story of a Pioneer. Harper. $2 net.
Wister, O. The Pentecost of Calamity. Macmillan. 50 cents net.

POETRY.

Bell, H. Poems and Sonnets. London: Elkin Mathews.
Cammerts, E. Belgian Poems. Lane. $1.50 net.
Curzon, Lord. War Poems. Lane. $1.50 net.
Poems of Mary Artemisia Lathbury. Introduction by J. H. Vincent and W. G. Horder. Minneapolis, Minn.: The Nunc Licet Press.

SCIENCE.

Angstrom, A. A Study of the Radiation of the Atmosphere. Washington: Smithsonian Institution.
Annals of Harvard College Observatory. Vol. 76, No. 4.
Educational Hygiene. Edited by L. W. Rapeer. Scribner.
Hill, J. M. Canning, Preserving, and Jelly Making. Little, Brown. $1 net.
Lutz, E. G. Practical Drawing. Scribner. $1.25 net.
McCullough, E. Practical Surveying. Van Nostrand. $2 net.

DRAMA AND MUSIC.

Arderton, H. O. Granville Bantock. (Living Masters of Music.) Lane. $1 net.
Austin, M. The Arrow-Maker. Houghton Mifflin. 75 cents net.
Chamberlain, H. S. The Wagnerian Drama. Lane. $1.35 net.
Ervine, St. J. Jane Clegg. Holt. 80 cents net.
Phillips, S. Armageddon. Lane. $1 net.

JUVENILE.

Bailey, R. R. Sure Pop and the Safety Scouts. World Book Co.
Sherman, C. L. The Dot Circus. Houghton Mifflin. $1 net.
Updike, E. R. Tourbillon, or the King of the Whirlwinds. Abingdon Press. 35 cents net.

TEXTBOOKS.

Breslich, E. R. First Year Mathematics for Secondary Schools. University of Chicago Press. $1 net.
Palmer, A. H. Schiller's Wilhelm Tell. Revised edition. Holt.
Pease, C. A. A First Year Course in General Science. Chas. E. Merrill Co. $1.08.

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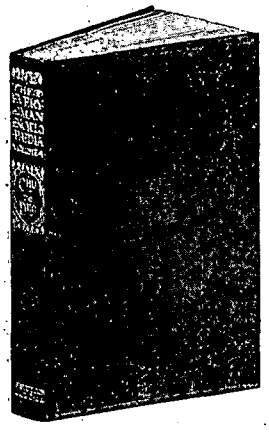

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The Nation

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TEXTBOOKS AND THE STATE.

The importance of textbooks as an element of our educational system may be gauged from the fact that we spend upon them no less than two-thirds as much as we spend upon chewing-gum. Yet the $17,000,000 thus invested is but 2 per cent. of our entire bill for education. For each pupil in the public schools, the cost of books is on the average 78 cents a year. A negligible item! An item, at least, so small in the total budget that the only question likely to arise in connection with it is whether we are getting in our particular school the best books on the market. So one would reason who was guided solely by the figures. The facts are far otherwise. So large does the cost of textbooks appear in the eyes of legislators that they are influenced to take one or both of two lines of action regarding them. One of these is to furnish such books to pupils free. This movement seems to be gradually spreading over the country. Maine, for instance, compels her towns to provide free textbooks, but the local school committee may contract with publishers as to the price for the books sold to parents who wish to pay for them. In Minnesota, the district board may provide free books or sell them at cost. The direction in which this regulation looks is indicated by the further provision that the question of free books must be voted upon, if as few as five persons request such an election.

The other line of action towards which legislators are occasionally influenced by their view of the cost of textbooks is to place the choosing and printing of these books in the hands of the State. This movement has never gained great headway, but now and then it appears in a new capital. Alabama is considering this step, as Georgia, Kansas, and California have considered it before her. Two years ago, Georgia appointed a Joint Legislative Commission of eight to investigate the subject. This Commission reported adversely to the project, and the matter was dropped. The same winter, Kansas created a State School-Book Commission, with power, among other things, "to purchase necessary machinery, type, and other printing and binding material, to print and bind school books, to procure copyrights for same, or to contract for the right to publish said school books, on a royalty basis, and to provide for the preparation, publication, purchase, sale, and distribution of a State series of school textbooks at cost, making appropriations therefor." In accordance with this law, a "History of Kansas" was written by a county superintendent, and its crudities were ironed out by one or two professors in a higher educational institution of the State.

But the point upon which stress is always laid is not the quality, editorial or mechanical, of books published by the State, but their low cost. The "History" was sold for 22 cents, a book of literary selections for 18 cents. Did the State come out ahead, or did it not? The answer is that nobody knows. As is usual in balance-sheets of State-made articles, no account is taken of elements of cost that are included in private estimates as a matter of course. A State is above taking notice of "overhead charges." Why should it trouble itself about interest on the investment, depreciation of plant, even salaries, storage, insurance, postage, and so on? Kansas has invested $230,000 in this venture. The interest on this sum at 6 per cent. would amount to $13,800 annually. It is obvious that the omission of items like this renders any estimate of cost almost valueless. The one thing certain is that whether she paid more to private publishers than she is paying now, at least she knew how much she paid then, and she does not know now. As the difference at most cannot be more than a few cents on each book, she would appear to be paying dearly for the privilege of making her own whistle. Towards this conclusion, she herself seems to have been driven, for the Legislature of 1915 amended the law in several important respects. It now directs that the Commission shall provide by adoption for such books as they may "find it impossible or impracticable to print or publish." It also abrogates a stupid provision in the law of 1913, which prohibited the use of supplementary books!

The only long trial of the plan has been made by California. For twenty-eight years, from 1885 to 1913, that State actually appropriated money to pay for publishing textbooks—and also charged for the books! It occasionally introduced a variation into this system by making special appropriations for its publishing plant. In 1913 it came to the conclusion that if the State taxed itself for the books, it ought not to have to pay for them a second time, and provided that textbooks should be free. Of this experiment, one thing can be said with confidence: it has cost the State money rather than saved it money. The mere fact that parents paid for their books twice is suf-

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ficient to establish that. These books were sold at about the prices asked by private publishers for books at retail, and yet the sums thus received by the State were not nearly enough to reimburse it for publishing them. The first set of texts was sold for double the price at which the State Printer had estimated that he could produce it. Now that California has gone the whole length by printing and distributing her textbooks free, she makes her appropriations with a more lavish hand. Up to 1913 the appropriations, direct and indirect, for publishing these books aggregated about $800,000. In February, 1913, the Legislature appropriated "for the purpose of paying expenses of publishing State textbooks and distributing the same free to the school children of the State" all the money then in the State school-book fund, amounting to $156,000. In June it made an additional appropriation of $500,000 for the same purpose. But unless a radical change in methods of accounting is made, California will still be far from a knowledge of what her school books are costing her.

But the item of expense, large as it looks to the legislator, is in reality the smallest element in the question. What are a few cents, or several cents, when the quality of a textbook is at stake? Yet this element of quality apparently never enters into a State's consideration of the matter. It seems to fear that it would be reflecting upon its own educational efficiency if it were to admit that its textbooks ought to be written by outsiders. The instinctive method of procedure is to get hold of a more or less prominent local educator who will not charge too much, and set him to work turning out the volume. No law to this effect need be written on the statute-book; local patriotism will be sufficient. One or two States, nevertheless, that are not doing their own printing, to make assurance doubly sure, have inserted something in their laws to that end. Louisiana definitely instructs her State Textbook Commission to show a preference for Louisiana books in their adoptions. Even if the resort to State printing were not so much a thing of politics, engineered by politicians, administered to too great an extent by politicians, the temptation to exploit local talent in the writing of textbooks would still be strong.

Now, textbooks lie very close to the centre of our system of public education. Teachers lean heavily upon them. They should, therefore, possess two features that only the expert can rightly give them: they should be authoritative, and they should be teachable. The qualities of scholarship and pedagogical ability are not always united. On the contrary, they are rarely found together. Who is going to seek out the proper person to write a book that must be at once learned and simple, sage and plain? Kansas proposed to manage it by having her Commission select, outside of its own membership, a secretary, who should be a textbook expert as well as the executive officer of the Commission. His salary was not to exceed $2,000 a year. This was as if a State should make an agreement with a publishing house to buy all of its textbooks from that one house, and to choose a house that did not pay its best textbook expert more than $2,000 a year. For the sake of saving a few cents on a book, which it might or might not, in the end, save, it surrendered its privilege of selecting from a score of finished volumes, produced by able and experienced concerns, the one best suited to its purposes.

It is not to be denied that private publishers have been somewhat to blame for the itch of State textbook publishing. The competition among them not many years ago was so keen, their methods in some cases were so shady, that not only politicians, but well-meaning folk, were tempted to ask themselves whether there must not be huge profits in a business that could support such extravagant methods of unloading its product. There is no doubt that now and then bribery was tried, sometimes successfully, by a house too eagerly bent upon getting its books into the schools of a city or a State; on the other hand, a politician would occasionally hint that the privilege of supplying textbooks was one that could be bought, like the textbooks. But one hears little of this sort of thing now. Competition is still keen—too keen to give substance to the idea, prevalent in certain localities, of a "school-book Trust"—but ordinarily it is conducted in a way to leave the question of State publication to be decided upon its merits. The general tendency of States to adopt uniform texts may have encouraged in one or two of them the idea of doing their own publishing, since uniform texts mean fewer texts. But this fact points in reality in the opposite direction: a private publisher who receives a contract to supply one or more texts to an entire State for a three or five-year period can name a price which takes away the argument of economy, to say nothing of the more important element of quality.

The State-University Idea

By WARNER FITE.

In Eastern newspapers of a more progressive type one hears occasional echoes of that peculiar reverence which is paid in the West to "the State-university idea." At the same time one may detect a growing willingness, not to say eagerness, on the part of Eastern universities for a closer relation to the State. Remembering the resources of the State as a patron of education and the huge appropriations which are sometimes granted to State universities, this willingness is not wholly surprising. But the grounds urged for "the State-university idea" are of a different sort. The State university is supposed to represent the final and logical type of scholastic institution, by the side of which the private, or corporate, university is an inheritance from an unenlightened past, before education came to be regarded as a social function. And in this country the State university is the special representative of "democracy." The picture is drawn of the private institution as administered by the financial interest, the mouths of the professors closed by the fear of disturbing vested interests, while the State university, owing allegiance to none but "society," enjoys a complete freedom.

No comparison could, I believe, be much further from the facts. It is true that our State universities have been on the whole remarkably free from "politics," in the sense of party politics. But no one who remembers how State institutions in general are administered in this country could expect them to be free from more or less corrupting personal influences. I have known of one State university whose policy was absolutely controlled by one member of the board, supposed to be the wealthiest man in the State; so much so that none of his colleagues ventured to suggest a measure without first learning his wishes. It was only by the grace of God that he was indifferent about the educational policy. Another institution might be named which some time ago was granted a large increase of income. A lively public campaign preceded the grant, and it was followed by mutual felicitations. But every one knew that one step alone had been responsible for success: a representative of the university had called upon the political boss of the State, a man known far and wide as an infamous politician, and had been successful in obtaining his favor. This does not mean that any promises of support were given. But one is obliged to wonder how far a member of the faculty of that institution, in his capacity of citizen of the State, will be at liberty to indulge in public condemnation of the politician in question, and how far his position is superior to that of the professor whose salary comes from "tainted" private wealth.

And if the State university is free from party politics, it is not free from the politics of local interest. From the standpoint of the university town, the university is mainly a

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source of trade, the town's share in the favors bestowed by the State; the town is therefore interested in the material prosperity of the university. This brings about a community of interest which is scarcely less corrupting than party politics, and which subjects the university to a preponderating influence in its affairs on the part of a local, and not seldom an ignorant, community—for few of the State universities are situated either in the capital or in the largest city of the State. And as for any other community of interest, if we imagine the university suddenly taken up and carried away, like Aladdin's palace, it would often be difficult to determine, from a study of the habits and modes of thought of the townspeople, whether the gap had been filled by the State university, the insane asylum, or the State prison.

Nor are we to imagine that "the State-university idea" stands for any special immunity from religious prejudice. It has been customary in State universities, no less than in denominational colleges, to question a candidate for appointment concerning his church connections. Any church connection will do. But in the small Western towns a man with no church connection is apt to be looked upon askance, especially if he refuses to apologize for it; and in the town society a family without church connections is considered hardly respectable. This means also that the code of personal morals which the candidate is expected to follow is apt to be somewhat narrowly Puritanical. I recall one State university professor who told me, rather sadly, that while his colleagues in the denominational colleges could drink a glass of beer when so inclined, he himself was obliged to pose as a total-abstainer. To those who are familiar with the history of State universities his story will be not wholly incredible. The State universities have had to face a steady fire from the denominational colleges, which, on grounds purely theoretical, connected with the separation in this country of state and church, have loved to denounce the State university as godless and immoral. The State university is therefore compelled to make a double show of piety and morality.

It would be historically incorrect to say that the State university has been *made* in Germany. It is a fact, however, that State universities have grown to their present dimensions during a period in which our conceptions of higher education have been dominated by German influences. And there can be little doubt that the German conception of the organized State underlies the thoughts of those who are impressed with the beauty of "the State-university idea." The State university is conceived to be the logical head of the educational system of the State. Ideally, it should consist of a body of educational experts—efficiency-men—who would control the educational system of the State from top to bottom. And not only the public system. They would also formulate the standards to which all private, or corporate, institutions would be obliged to conform. Nor is this all—indeed, it is a small part. Following "the Wisconsin idea," the object of envious imitation in State-university circles, the university would provide authoritative experts for all departments of life. No laws should be made without consulting them, and nothing would be too trivial or too secular for their attention. In the full realization of "the State-university idea" we should see a State made happy and prosperous by authoritative academic wisdom.

From the standpoint of "social efficiency," the beauty of the idea is perhaps indisputable. But there may still be some Americans who wonder whether social efficiency, so called, is a complete test of social excellence, and whether America free is not more desirable than America efficient. Just at the moment we have a rare opportunity of studying the fruits of social efficiency in Germany, the land where the State-university idea has achieved its finest realization; and where, on the part of university professors, a miraculous uniformity of sentiment (coupled with a devastating diversity of argument) is illustrating for us the ideal of academic freedom. Some time ago the *Nation* printed an article on the recent difficulties of "the State-university idea" at the University of Wisconsin, in which the writer dwelt somewhat upon the fickleness and stupidity of a character named Demos. I am unfamiliar with the Wisconsin Demos, but from certain expressions of "the Wisconsin idea" in other places, I am led to suspect that Demos found the idea too much for him. Some time before I had had the pleasure of reading a public circular in which another State university, unhappily not provided with a department of dairying, undertook to enumerate the services that could be rendered the State by other departments. Among others, the department of public speaking could assist the State in the discussion of public questions—the department in question consisting of one bachelor of arts of two years' standing. One may hazard the guess that Demos does not wish to be assisted in the discussion of public questions.

Nor is it at all clear that the alliance with Demos is favorable to the higher interests of the university. State universities in this country have not thus far been distinguished either for an atmosphere of culture or for disinterested scientific achievement. And in the appeal to Demos little or nothing is said about the leavening influence of the mere presence in the State of a body of cultivated men. While large sums have been extracted from Demos for the general uses of the university, more or less by a resort to lobbying, the argument has been based chiefly upon corn and cows; and Demos, while paying for corn and cows, has unwittingly contributed to culture. It still remains to be seen how far Demos would approve of the broader aims of the university—for liberal scholarship, for disinterested scientific research, and for the cultivation of the humanities—if these items were specified in the bill.

And if Demos should object, it would be hard to say that he would be altogether wrong. If Demos is to pay the bill, why should he not be the chooser of the goods? Now, Demos is by no means a brute. He may be mainly interested in corn and cows, or in trade, but he is always pleased to see his son become a finer and more capable man than himself. He is not quite satisfied, however, that all the apparatus of the State university is necessary to this result. If he forms his idea of the university from the daily press, he will judge that it is primarily occupied with the promotion of athletics and social events. And if he makes a visit to the university, he may be led to think of it as mainly an institution where men of intellectual tastes may pursue their favorite avocations at public expense; or where a set of youths, by no means conspicuously superior in natural ability and taste to their brothers who are working every day and all day in offices and stores, are enjoying independent leisure. Granting that he gives the university full credit for serious intellectual work, he may still be pardoned for wondering how much of it is useful to Demos. It is all very well to tell him that leisure and independence are necessary to culture; that the independent pursuit of culture and learning is an advantage of the State; that these tend ultimately to raise the standard of living, to refine the habits and the morals of men, and in the end to add to the general prosperity. This may be evident enough from the point of view of the cultivated man, though even for him it will be more or less an article of faith. Demos inevitably—and one may say, rightfully—looks to more immediate and tangible results.

A sense of the incompatibility between the point of view of Demos and that of the more scholarly aims of the university is bound to have, and does have, a certain benumbing influence upon the policy of the State university. Whatever the ambition of the university in the direction of a liberal as opposed to a practical culture, it is the practical rather than the liberal that must be put forward when dealing with Demos. The inevitable result is that men who are pursuing the more practical studies come to feel that they have a more securely vested interest, while the others may be led to doubt whether they have any right to their places. The professor in the State university is obliged to remember that he is the servant of Demos. As a high-school teacher of history or of science, he might easily satisfy himself that he is giving Demos not only what is good for him, but what he would gladly pay for. As a university professor of higher mathematics, or of Romance literature, or of philosophy, he may have ground for doubting whether Demos would pay the bill if left to himself, if he does not also doubt whether Demos has any real use for the goods.

The truth is that the idea of the State university is not so logical as it seems. Its logical completeness is marred by an internal disharmony between the useful and the noble which it shares with all of life. "The

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State-university idea" assumes that higher culture may be supported by an appeal to common interests. But common interests are inevitably, if not also justifiably, more or less utilitarian; and no argument based upon common interest will ever quite convincingly justify the finer works of the spirit. In the history of culture spiritual advancement has been founded, not upon common needs, but upon a certain freedom from those needs which is to be described generally as "leisure." It may well be that the fruits of leisure include an increase in general prosperity, but no cultivation of the spirit based upon the need of prosperity will yield the ripe fruit. The flight of the spirit presupposes surplus energy, or at least a freedom from common cares. If the imagination of the scholar or of the man of science is to work freely, he must be absolved from any immediate responsibility for tangible "results." And if an institution of learning is to feel free to adopt a liberal programme of thought and of research, it must be supported by surplus wealth. Higher thought and learning are in all senses of the word speculative. So far, then, from discovering any absurdity in the support of higher education by private wealth, as contended by the advocates of "the State-university idea," we may, on the contrary, discern a special fitness in the idea that *liberal* education should be supported by free contributions and not by a tax upon common needs.

Yet I have no wish to urge that the State university is itself an absurdity. The State university has doubtless come to stay; and in the modern state it is bound to fulfil an increasingly important economic function. Nor is there any reason why it should be bound by economic restrictions as long as Demos is willing to pay the bill. My point is rather that the endowed institution, so far from requiring an apology for its existence, possesses a special advantage. There is no reason why all institutions of learning should be of the same type, have the same curriculum, or conform to the same standards. And it is mere socialistic nonsense to suppose that an institution which lies outside of the political system performs no "social function." The endowed university enjoys an invaluable freedom. Donors may sometimes be exacting, but at length they die, while the Legislature goes on forever. No Legislature can be counted upon to respect academic tradition. The State university is likely at any time to have its income reduced, to be placed under foreign control, or to be subjected to conditions wholly at variance with academic ideals. The endowed university is mistress of her own policy. While not free from public responsibility, she is free to resist popular prejudice. If she will exercise economy and choose her own course, she can in most cases wait for gifts to come to her. As the representative of a truly academic freedom she performs an important social function, and any endowed university seeking the protection of the State is parting with an invaluable birthright.

Hittite Greek

IMPORTANT CORROBORATION OF THE DISCOVERY OF THE GREEK CHARACTER OF HITTITE.

By GEORGE HEMPL.

There have recently come to my knowledge certain texts that throw clear light upon the problem of the affinities of the Hittites, whose empire extended over Asia Minor, Syria, and northern Mesopotamia, and was at the height of its power during the second millennium before Christ. This new evidence is such as will doubtless be appreciated by scholars generally, as well as by philologists. I therefore venture to avail myself of the columns of the *Nation* in order that I may call attention to the significance of these texts, preliminary to treating them in detail in a professional journal.

Three years ago I succeeded in reading certain Hittite documents. My first report on the subject was made in a paper read before the Philological Society of the Pacific Coast, in November, 1913, and published in the last volume of the "Transactions of the American Philological Association." In this I showed that Hittite was Greek, and that, while the dialect of the early Hittites was Javonian and closely akin to the later Greek of Attica, the Hittite empire was conquered about 1400 B. C. by Dorians, the official documents of the new dynasty being in a form of Doric. This Doric differs from the Doric hitherto known to us, not only in being much older, but also in having had a long independent development. Like the Doric we already knew, it reveals an accent that stands one mora farther on in the word than that of other Greek; it retains long *a*, where Javonian Greek has long *e;* it often shows *s* for *th;* it employs such forms as *enti* for *esti,* and the pronouns *(e)min, (e)tin, sin/hin.* On the other hand, it frequently omits pretonic and initial unaccented vowels, and even syllables, thus betraying stress accent; it simplifies *st(e)r* to *s(e)r;* it usually drops final *-s* after a short vowel if no initial vowel follows; it treats final *-n* similarly, or changes it to the cognate *-r;* and it has infinitives ending in *-wor/-mor* and *-or,* which represent *-mon* and *-on,* the gradation mates of Doric *-mēn* and *-ēn.*

When I published my report, the Hittite material which I had at my disposal was limited. Recently I have got access to transcripts of numerous Hittite cuneiform texts and find my earlier conclusions fully confirmed. I have not, however, deceived myself into assuming that the careful interpretation of even a considerable number of Hittite texts would soon convince the philological world of the nature of the language. There are various reasons why this should not be expected. It was, therefore, a matter of special gratification to me when I discovered a few weeks ago that Professor Delitzsch of Berlin has edited (in the *Abhandlungen* of the Prussian Academy, 1914) fragments of a set of cuneiform tablets which contain a glossary with Hittite translations of Sumerian and Assyrian words. This fixes the meaning of the Hittite words quite independently of any one's theory as to the nature of the language. When, then, it appears that these Hittite words have the same form and the same meaning in Greek, the Greek character of Hittite is automatically established. This was not observed by Delitzsch, though it is hard to understand why the obviously Indo-European character of the texts did not impress itself upon him.

I.

In order to facilitate the comparison of the Hittite and the Greek words, I shall transcribe both into Roman letters, ignoring, however, all diacritic marks other than the sign of length. The reader must bear in mind the inexact character of cuneiform writing, especially of the writing found in these provincial texts. Thus, a letter is frequently doubled to no phonological purpose, and, whether single or doubled, may represent any one of a number of similar sounds. For example, *e* or *i* or *ii* or *ie* or *ei* may spell *i, e, ē,* or *ei;* and *k* may stand for *k, g, kh,* or *q,* which last became *k, p,* or *t* in classical Greek. The nasals *m* and *n* are not always distinguished, and so the labials, *m, w,* and *u,* and the dental sonorants *l, r,* and *n.* In some cases it is still to be determined whether we have to do with inexact spelling or with phonological change, for example, of *m* to *w* and of *n* to *r.* Moreover, as there was no *o* in Assyrian and consequently no cuneiform spelling for it, Greek *o*'s were spelled either *a* or *u.* It must also be borne in mind that this Hittite Greek is many hundreds of years older than classical Greek and is of the Doric, not the Attic, variety. It is hardly necessary to add that it cannot be expected that the endings will always coincide, any more than they coincide in later Greek dialects, or that the words will always have exactly the same shade of meaning.

I shall content myself in this communication with citing a few typical examples of each of the various parts of speech. The English translations that I give of the Hittite words represent the Sumerian and Assyrian words to which the Hittite words are attached. The pronouns and pronominal adverbs are in themselves sufficient to show the Greek character of Hittite. We have already observed the Hittite use of the Doric datives of the personal pronoun, but in Hittite these forms have the function of possessive adjectives, much as *mir, dir, ihm* often have in German—

Hittite *mi(n)* "my," Doric *e-min* "for me."
Hittite *ti(n)* "thy," Doric *e-tin* "for thee."
Hittite *si(n)* "his," Doric *hin* "for him."

But Delitzsch is in error in supposing that *mi,* etc., are dative possessives, and *min,* etc., accusatives, as I have made clear in my report on the Tell el Amarna texts. There are numerous examples of the *q* pronouns

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and adverbs. *kuis* (p. 33) = *qis* "who"; Greek *tis* from *qis* "who." *kuid* (p. 27, Z. 22) = *qid* "what?"; Greek *ti* from *qid* "what?" *kuid* (p. 33) "how?", "when?"; Greek *ti* from *qid* "how?" *nu kuid* (p. 33) "(now) why?", "for what time?", "whenever"; Greek *ti nu*, "why (now)?" *kuussaan* (pp. 28, 33)=*qoson*, "when?"; Greek *koson/poson* from *qoson* "how much?" "how long?" Also *nu kussaan*, "for what time?" and "whenever," "as long as," that is, used relatively, like Greek *hoson*, "as long as." With these *nu*-forms compare *kinuun* "now," that is, *ge nūn*, Attic *age nūn* "well now," "now," with Doric accent and loss of unaccented initial *a-*.

As Delitzsch observed, there is also a noun spelled *kuussaan*, dative *kuussani*, which means "pay," "compensation." This is *qusōn*, for *qisōn* (compare our *cud* for *quid*), from *qitiōn*, an extension of the stem seen in Greek *tisis*, from *qitis*, "pay," "compensation," "retribution." Of other nouns I may cite the following: *zaakkar* (pp. 28-9) "storm," compare Greek *zakhrēēs*, "stormy," "violent." *khuumaan* (pp. 21-23, 24)= *komōn* "entirety," compare Greek *komidē* "entirely." *pabarrii* (pp. 15-2)=*pamphori(s)* "produce," compare Greek *pamphoria* "all kinds of fruit." *kuutti biraan* (pp. 20-33)= *kutei perān* "circumference of a dish" (Sayce), literally "around a dish," compare Greek *kutei peri*, "around a dish." *turiiaanza* "be prominent," "jut out," "what is prominent" = *turyandzo(s)*, from *turwanyos*, whence Greek *turannos*, "absolute sovereign," especially one who rose to power by irregular means, compare our *upstart*. There are many Hittite nouns with the suffix *-anza(s)*=*-andzo(s)*, from *-nnyos*. The Hittite translations of nouns are, as we have seen, not always word for word; and for this we have reason to be thankful. Thus Sumerian *agisgarra*, Assyrian *iskaru* "restraint," "that which restrains," is rendered by the interesting clause *UD.KAMas* (ideograph for "daily," see pp. 19-32) *aniiaan kuis eessai*, that is (*hēmerān pr*)*os aniān tis ēssāi*, "one who overcomes the annoyances incident to everyday life," that is, "one who restrains himself."

Of the adjectives I may mention the following: *aara* "good"=*aro(s)*, of which Greek *aristos* "best" is the superlative. *meikki* and *meikkaaes* "much," "large," = *megi(s)* and *megās*, Greek *megas* "much," "large." *dameeda* (pp. 29-15) "*fat*"=*dāmeto(s)*, an extension of the stem seen in Greek *dāmos*, *dēmos* "fat." *suuwaan* "strong"=*swōn* or *swoon*, Greek *s(w)oon*, "sound," "healthy." *waalkissaraas* "strong" = *walk-is(t)eros*, Greek *(w)alk-imos* "strong," "brave," both originally superlative forms. The Hittite *w*-shows that *alkimos* is cognate with Sanscrit *varcas* "strength."

The many verbs present numerous points of interest. *appatar* "grasp," "take," "get"= *apt-or*, from *apt-on*, which is the mate of Greek *(h)apt-en*, *(h)apt-ein* "fasten to," "grasp," etc. Assyrian *zaarum* "beget" is rendered by Hittite *kuruur appatar*=*kōrōr aptor*, that is, Doric *kōrōn hapten*, Attic *korōn haptein*, literally "get children," with *-r* for *-n* in both words. Prehistoric *punthō* "ask," the original form of *punthanomai*, is reflected in Hittite *bunuussuuwaar* (p. 27, Z. 11), the translation of Assyrian *sa'alu* "ask." This *bunuussuuwaar* is the clumsy cuneiform spelling of Hittite *puns-wor*, from *punth-mon*, with Doric *s* for *th*, as in *sūmos* for *thūmos*, etc. The parallel *bunuus-kiuwaar*, which is used to translate *sita'alu*, the iphteal form of the Assyrian word, is evidently the perfective *k*-aorist, out of which the Greek *k*-perfect developed. This would seem to betray the perfective character of iphteal forms. In other words, *sita'alu* and *bunuuskiuwaar* meant "succeed in inquiring," "learn," the idea expressed in later Greek by the middle *punthanomai*. The Greek perfective *ke*, which later became the sign of the perfect, is identical with German *ge-*, perfective prefix, later sign of the perfect participle. *sa[a]ki* (pp. 9-7) "knows"=*sāke*, Doric doublet of *thāke* (compare Doric *e-sāmen* for *e-thāmen*), is the active perfective form of *tha(e)omai* "gaze at," with the normal perfective value "succeed in seeing," "realize," "understand," "know." Compare the development of Greek *oida*, English *wot*, German *weiss*. *taata luuskiuwar* is used to translate Assyrian *beduu* "loosen." Of these words, *taata*, the object, is Greek *tata* "things that can be stretched," and *luuskiuwar*=*luske-wor*, is the infinitive of the prefective *k*-aorist of *lu(s)ō*, mate of Greek *luō* "loosen." Observe also the infinitives *arnuwar* "be excited," "be angry"=*ornu-wor*, Greek *ornu-ein* "excite," *orōra* "be excited"; and *kuunnuwar* "fill up," "be full"=*khōnnu-wor*, Greek *khōnnu-ein* "heap up," "fill up." An infinitive, being a verbal noun, often occurs where we might use a noun. Thus *arkuuwaar*=*arkh-wor*, "to command," "commanding," "a command," "commands," Greek *arkh-ein*, "to command."

The adverb-preposition *anda* occurs in various paraphrases which make it clear that it means "together," "with," "because of." This *anda* = *anta*, is Greek *anta* "against," "face to face," and shows the same shift in meaning that our *with* underwent, compare *withstand* "hold out against," German *wied(er)* "against." Thus, for example, *anda tarubbuar* "collect together," in which *tarubb-uar*=*tarph-wor*, is Doric *traphen* "curdle," that is, "collect into groups." Compare also the rendering of Assyrian *zitum* and *asasum* "mourning," "lamentation," by Hittite *anda gan impauwaar* and *para gan paauar* "to be agitated with grief." Here both *anda* and *para*, like Greek *para*, mean "with," "because of"; *gan*=*gōn* or *goon*, is Greek *goon*, accusative of *goos* "grief," "lamentation"; and *paauar*, *im-pauwaar* (compare Greek *tromos*, *en-tromos* "trembling") are cognate with Latin *pavor* "tremble," "be agitated."

The usual negative employed in these Hittite texts is the Assyrian *uul* "not," rather than the Greek *ou*, which would be spelled *uu* in cuneiform. It is probable that the use of the Assyrian word was graphic only, much as the Anglo-Saxons usually used 7 and we sometimes use &, and in arithmetic +, all three corruptions of the Latin word *et* "and." But twice we find *naata* (pp. 9, 36)=*māta* "not," Greek *māte*, *mēte*, "not."

It must be understood that the exact form and meaning of a goodly number of Sumerian and Assyrian words in these texts are unknown, or, at least, were not made out by Professor Delitzsch. For example, in the first line dealt with (and similarly in the second) Delitzsch reads Assyrian *saninam laa isuu*. From this he assumes that an initial *sa* "who" has been omitted by mistake, and translates "[who] has not a rival." But the text is all right as it stands, reading *sa ninam laa isuu* "who has not everything," which corresponds exactly to the Sumerian *gi nu tug* (*ki nu tuku*) "has not everything," *ninam* being obviously the same as *minma* "anything," "everything," "all." The corresponding Hittite text is defective. In the fourth and sixth lines Delitzsch mistook Assyrian *urtam* for the similar *irtam* and "with extreme reserve" suggested the reading *sa teirtam irtam laa isuu* "who has not a held-back breast"; whereas the text really is *sa teirtam urtam laa isuu* "who has not command" (literally, "command issued"), which corresponds to the Sumerian *sukar nu tuku* "who has not authority," and to the Hittite *kuis arkuuwaar naata iiazi* "who does not issue commands." It will readily be seen that the effort to make the Hittite text read "who has not a held-back breast" would be hopeless, no matter what language it was supposed to be. In other words, before we can determine the meaning of the Hittite words from the corresponding Sumerian and Assyrian words, we must be absolutely certain what the Sumerian and Assyrian words mean. In fact, I do not hesitate to predict that in not a few cases the meaning of the Hittite word will be determined first, by the aid of the usual Greek form, and that the meaning of the Sumerian and Assyrian words will be determined by that of the Hittite. For example, in the light of what we have seen above, it is clear that *kuid maan* (p. 27, Z. 17) is *qid mān*, later Doric *ti mān*, Attic *ti mēn* "what then?" which thus gives us the meaning of the corresponding Assyrian *aru*, which may be a variant of *allu* "then." In a recent paper in the Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, Sayce has succeeded in identifying some of the Sumerian and Assyrian words with more success than that which Delitzsch achieved.

II.

The discovery that the Hittites were Greeks will, of course, have far-reaching results. But what seems to me at present hardly less important is the fortunate accident that has put into our hands texts that furnish evidence as to the nature of the language, such as even the most timid conservative must recognize. For we are thus saved in the case of Hittite the delay and the various unpleasantnesses that are prone to mar the transition from the entertainment of erroneous traditional conceptions to the acceptance of unexpected truth.

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The Public Schools

PROFESSOR DEWEY'S ADVOCACY OF A BROAD VOCATIONISM—MR. WIRT'S SCHOOLS AT GARY, INDIANA.

The universities having passed through a period of searching criticism, both from without and from within, and having now, with one notable exception, relapsed into some show of equanimity, the same ordeal of popular attention has become the lot of the public schools. Do these schools prepare boys and girls as well as they might be expected to do for the wage-earning life which the large majority, without higher education, are destined to enter? Is not the average curriculum a futile relic of other days? Are we not attempting to drum into children's minds the crystallized knowledge of the adult? These are some of the sweeping questions which are being asked by leading educators. No satisfaction is apparently given by the thought that the situation cannot be hopeless, since numerous products of the abused system have survived it to become men and women of brilliant attainments. The impression is abroad that something is radically wrong with our educational methods, and the sooner we find out what it is, the better for us and our children.

One of the severest critics of the current system, Prof. John Dewey, has presented, in his new book, "Schools of To-morrow,"* a considered plea for a change to some system which shall be better adjusted to the requirements of everyday life. He feels, perhaps rightly, that a serious wrong is done to the large percentage of pupils who quit school at the age of fourteen and enter industrial positions for which many of them are not fitted, and the bearings of which on life in general they cannot understand in the least. In some fashion a cultural education should be formulated, not out of the usual book learning, but from the materials of the nation's practical existence. It is not technical schools which Professor Dewey has in mind, nor the sort of vocational training which in effect merely adds technical instruction to the curriculum now in use. He would revolutionize education from the first grade on, with the aim of making clear to students the relations of subjects taught to the possibilities that will confront them in after life. The "primary and fundamental problem is not to prepare individuals to work at particular callings, but to be vitally and sincerely interested in the calling upon which they must enter if they are not to be social parasites, and to be informed as to the social and scientific bearings of that calling."

With this desire to steer a middle course between the extremes of bookishness and of the "practical" education, few persons will quarrel. The difficulty is to invent a system which, while drawing its subject matter from the student's environment, shall not descend to the dead level of materialism. With all its sins upon its head, the current system of education retains some of the spiritual dignity which has traditionally been associated with learning, and there would be an irreparable loss if this should vanish. Professor Dewey, however, is satisfied that the principles he has at heart can already be seen in successful operation in three or four institutions about the country; and the purpose of his book is not only to describe the workings of such schools, but to convince the public that they have a philosophical justification.

The most interesting of recent experiments along the lines which Professor Dewey approves is the organization which Mr. Wirt has built up in the past ten years at Gary, Indiana. Much has been written of late about the Gary schools, and such a following have they won that Mr. Wirt has been asked to experiment with conditions in certain other cities, notably with two of the most congested schools in the Bronx district of New York. We do not say that Mr. Wirt is not deserving of all the attention which he has attracted, but it is most fortunate that his ideas should just at this time be examined by a person of Professor Dewey's competence and be assigned to their proper place in the large scheme of education.

Briefly, the Gary schools were founded to meet the special needs of an industrial town having a somewhat drifting population. The opportunity, as seen by Mr. Wirt, was twofold: to prepare the children of factory workers for useful citizenship, and, largely through the agency of the pupils, to better the conditions of the factory workers themselves. This, obviously, could not be done unless the schools were seen to have practical value and became the accepted centre of intellectual life. With these objects in view Mr. Wirt decided to throw overboard the bulk of the traditional system and to start afresh. One of his most important features is keeping the school buildings open in the evening and on Sundays and holidays, so that there may be public lectures and night classes for parents. He soon found that adults were relying upon the school to answer all manner of questions and were investing it with a community spirit. Instead of being confined mainly to book learning, the pupils, through the training they receive in shops, laboratories, etc., are educated to keep the entire plant running. In the machine and carpenter shops they make the desks, for instance, required in the classrooms. They are encouraged to put into practice the lessons dealing with the nutritive values of foods by selecting the menus and cooking the dishes for the school luncheon. Pupils attend to the bookkeeping and ordering of the school store. They apply their mathematics, among other things, in laying out and equipping playgrounds. They make plans of their parents' houses, and these are studied by all so as to learn the difference between good and bad arrangement, and perhaps dissuade their parents from renting houses which are undesirable.

Without attempting any full description of the Gary schools, we may note also that, though the pupils are graded, those of all grades—or roughly of ages from four to nineteen—are to be found in one building, Mr. Wirt's idea being that if young pupils are constantly thrown with older pupils and on occasions serve as their helpers, especially in the shops and laboratories, there will gradually be implanted a real perspective of education. It must not be inferred that students are not drilled with textbooks, and in such subjects as history and Latin, only lessons without application count for less than faith without works. By numerous devices knowledge is vitalized for old and young alike. Little children are not kept poring over books, but are set tasks which allow their bodies free play, such as clay modelling and basket-weaving. Boys in the higher grades are allowed to spend much time in working out the intellectual and mechanical problems connected with the vocations which, so far as they are able to decide, are to be theirs after leaving school. That Mr. Wirt succeeds in making knowledge attractive is attested by the number of his pupils who continue their studies after reaching the legal age when they are free to retire, and by the considerable percentage of students who go from Gary to the State universities.

Mr. Wirt's labors at Gary, so far as we can judge, have borne rich fruit. He is giving to children, often of foreign-born parents, an American self-reliance and is helping them to become useful citizens. By a system so flexible that it responds easily to the peculiar needs of the individual, be he dullard or prodigy, he is apparently able to keep all the students actively interested. A system which does this in days when even our colleges are complaining of the blasé spirit of youth should not lightly be dismissed. Yet it is a question whether Mr. Wirt's methods, except for the revolutionary extent to which he has applied them, differ from the practice which has been attempted by the colleges themselves; namely, the introduction of courses, especially in the department of economics, which prepare visibly for positions in business. Or there are courses in sociology which are occupied almost entirely with a classification of the statistics gathered by students in their "field work." As is well known, the colleges have been widely criticised for this very emphasis put upon the practical, because of the further impression given that the so-called cultural courses have no real value. It has been felt by many that the endeavors of the colleges to bring themselves up to date have gone far enough, and that faculties would be wise if they took for granted the usefulness of the humanities and of pure theory.

The problem as applied to the public schools is, however, special. There the grave fact has to be faced that the education of an enormous number of children ends at the age of fourteen, and that they are compelled to

Schools of To-morrow. By John Dewey and Evelyn Dewey. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50 net.

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meet the world with little more than the three R's at their command. For it is not to be supposed that at that tender age the wider significance of the usual book-learning can be firmly grasped. Yet, even so, should we by a sweeping change endanger the cultural training which our high schools are giving to hundreds of thousands of students? Professor Dewey would doubtless answer that this begs the question, since the Gary system, if universally applied, would bestow as much, if not more, culture. We are not so sure that it would. In the hands of so vigorous a personality as Mr. Wirt it may show almost limitless possibilities. It is true that Christ taught spiritual values by reference to such commonplace objects as money changers and fishermen and granaries. But a system which places the emphasis consistently on application to everyday life can scarcely fail, if untouched by an imaginative teacher, to deal almost exclusively in the material.

Now, whatever else the schools of the country may have done, they have shown a wholesome respect for theory, and by requiring pupils to be occupied some of the time with subjects remote from practical interests have given an inkling of that background of life without which existence would be dull and flat. Of the two extremes, it is perhaps best that pupils should understand little of what they are taught than that they should fully understand all. Mr. Wirt circulates printed reasons for studying Latin. Some of the reasons for learning this language can be made intelligible to young folk; others can not. Is it well to create the impression that every subject, in order to justify itself, must have a *raison d'être* visible to the naked eye? All education should be practical in the sense that it should fit into a useful scheme of the universe; but the use of some portions of it need not necessarily be felt by students until long after they have left school.

This seems to us to be the one considerable flaw in Mr. Wirt's system. He has improved enormously on the trade school by equipping students not for one given occupation but for any one of many, and he has no doubt demonstrated the need of making great changes in the curricula of the public schools. But before casting off the whole apparatus of a scheme which has grown as an organism through the ages, we shall do well to make sure that any substitute does not neglect the advantages of pure speculation. Over this aspect of the question Professor Dewey, who carries the principles underlying the Gary system back to the educational theories of Rousseau, seems not to be greatly concerned. And it must be confessed that the picture which he draws of the workings of the Gary schools is most alluring. One might fancy that the attention there given to correlating the various branches of knowledge would in itself furnish a broad outlook. We wonder, however, whether the pupils at Gary catch the vision of it with anything like the clarity with which it strikes Professor Dewey.

Communications on Educational Topics

PERIODICALS IN COLLEGE ENGLISH COURSES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: An interesting development of the past four or five years in the college teaching of English has been the increasing use of periodicals as supplementary reading. The *Atlantic Monthly*, I believe, was the first to enter the field. Some enterprising instructor conceived the idea of having a class subscribe for the *Atlantic;* the idea was, of course, encouraged and well advertised by the publishers; and there is now a long list of colleges, normal schools, etc., in which the *Atlantic* is regularly used. A club rate is offered to classes for three or six months' subscriptions. Several other periodicals, including some of the best weeklies, like the *Nation,* now offer similar rates to college and other classes.

My own experience has been confined to the use of the *Atlantic* for one semester in a sophomore course in exposition. The results, though not conclusive, were in some respects disappointing. I hope that other teachers who have tried the plan may feel like discussing it in your columns.

Some of the advantages of the plan are obvious. A surprisingly small percentage of college students read regularly any good journal; and any device which will lead more of them to form the habit of reading a serious weekly or monthly is worthy of consideration. The benefits may vary somewhat according to the periodical chosen; but all the publications now being used in this way have genuine value. A suspicion may be roused in the skeptical mind, however, by the general tone of the letters from teachers quoted in the publishers' circulars. The point which most of them emphasize is the increased interest in class-room work. Many of them run something like this: "Since we substituted the —— for our reading list of classics, the interest of class discussions has more than doubled. The students have come to see that the principles they have been studying are something more than abstruse rules followed by great writers in the past; that they have a vital and practical application to the discussion of present-day problems," etc. It would appear almost as if some of the teachers had discovered for the first time that the principles of composition are something more than fossil remains. If so, here is, of course, another argument for the plan. But it seems needless to remark that a good teacher ought not to require the help of a magazine in making the vitality of his subject realized. One is led to suspect that a principal reason for the wide adoption of the plan is that it makes the immediate task of the teacher vastly easier. But is class-room interest, by itself, an adequate test of teaching? Has the teacher done enough if he has kept his class interested, at the same time trying to cultivate in them a taste for good journalism? Of course, it is easier to interest students momentarily in current journalistic writing than in Burke or Swift or Arnold; the real question is whether the teacher who throws over his "reading list of classics" for even the best of journalism is not sacrificing permanent to temporary values.

Is the interested student really acquiring and carrying away from his periodical reading anything like the equivalent of what he would get from a well selected list of classics? My experience suggests that he is not. I tried the experiment with the periodical which seemed best fitted for the work in hand. Although the class showed a lively interest in the essays while they were being discussed, the ideas and impressions remaining in their minds at the end of the term proved painfully slight and vague. The fact is, of course, that no periodical can present a series of articles comparable in substance or form with a well chosen list of great essays. The accidental interest of timeliness by no means compensates for the lack of more solid qualities. The habit of reading the magazine, however, if it is continued by a considerable number of the class, might turn the scale in favor of the new plan. One point on which I should be glad of information is this: about what per cent. of an average class form the habit of reading the journal used? Teachers who have followed the plan for three or four years may be able to throw some light on this question. If we are to judge between reading a periodical merely for three or six months and reading a corresponding amount of standard literature, the verdict, I think, must be against the periodical. Homer E. Woodbridge.

Colorado Springs, September 5.

A NEGLECTED ASPECT OF GRADUATE INSTRUCTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir:

. . . we have never expected the graduate schools to train for a career in literature; they have a distinctly different aim: to turn out teachers. The man who goes to a graduate school in order to become an author is patronizing the wrong shop.—[The Nation, May 14, 1908.

Such was the reply of the *Nation* to a correspondent's protest against what he considered the throttling by graduate schools of all creative literary work, and while some of those who obtain higher degrees may devote themselves exclusively, or as a side issue of academic life, to literature, research, and expert work of various sorts, the statement above will, I think, be accepted without question. It was not challenged in the discussion to which the letter and editorial gave rise, and surprisingly, no one pointed out that the methods used are neither in theory nor in fact adapted to fulfil the aim of training teachers—an inconsistency that is seldom remarked, and rarely, if ever, stressed.

Graduate instruction in the United States, either implicitly or avowedly, is so conducted that the students receive a certain amount of information and are shown where to find a greater amount, the object being to approximate a complete disclosure of the sources of knowledge in a particular subject. Even the undergraduate system of lectures, in part at least, accomplishes this, but the graduate differs from the undergraduate work in that the students are expected to do more than absorb facts; they are shown the scientific methods of able professors in attacking and expounding particular problems. If the preparation of teachers is the aim of the instruction, the graduate student should be equipped not only to pass

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on the information which he has acquired from the lectures and collateral work, but to present it in such a way that his undergraduate students will easily comprehend and become eager to learn more. In this sense, graduate and undergraduate instruction differ in degree as well as in kind, but the advanced lectures, properly appreciated, are calculated to enable the student to acquire the information and, in some measure, the knowledge of methods necessary for collegiate work.

But the other, perhaps the more important and certainly the more distinctive, feature of graduate instruction is the training in research. The "indispensable adjunct to true university work" is the seminar, and its *raison d'être* is "to teach the student how to handle his material and by interpretation or discovery to make a contribution to the store of existing knowledge." Nowhere, however, in the symposium by graduate professors on the true function of the economic seminar, from which the quotations are taken, is there any mention of the fact that the vast majority of those trained in the seminar will be expected to conduct undergraduate classes. The training is wholly in research, in scientific methods, in scholarly habits of thought —all, it is true, highly important for a successful teacher, yet all primarily designed to induce future productivity. A few of those who begin an academic career may be permitted, from the first, to present the results of original investigation; yet the majority, either for life or as a preliminary to something else, must give instruction to college students, and nowhere in the scheme of graduate work that I have roughly outlined is this fact avowedly considered.

It is perhaps permissible to point out that only graduate schools have neglected the aspect of instruction that I have been considering. In medicine, for example, the student acquires knowledge; what is more important, however, is to put this knowledge into practice, and he learns how, not by doing research, but in making people well. His training in dispensary and hospital, under competent guidance, is a most important part of his course. At the law schools of the country, much attention is devoted to moot courts where the future lawyers meet and fight out disputed issues just as in the trial of a real cause. The same is true of theological instruction, and perhaps this analogy is closest, for both the clergyman and the teacher give the public not what it demands, but what is good for it. At the theological schools a man is prepared, among other things, to preach, and before he graduates he is taught the principles of preaching and receives the opportunity of putting them into practice. Even in the schools of journalism —a recent development of professional education—the students write "stories," "build" head-lines, and practice actual newspaper work. But in graduate instruction, although the object is to train teachers, there is no effort made to do this; the student receives his degree as evidence of his fitness to teach, and neither the professor nor the student himself knows whether he can do it.

Such is the problem by which, as a graduate student, I have been puzzled. A remedy I do not propose, and, above all, am not so rash as to imply that there should be any required study of the pedagogics of undergraduate work, as is the case in Europe. My point is simply that some time should be devoted to training the student in oral and extemporaneous discussion of elementary problems, and that, before turning him out into academic life, the professor should discover whether the student is able to teach. In the discussion of the economic seminar to which I have already referred, Professor Taussig stressed the fact that at Harvard the *reading* of papers is frowned upon; the students are desired to *talk*, but about original work that they have done. This is a tendency in the right direction, but certain it is, I think, that the seminars, discussion clubs, reading classes, however conducted, make little, if any, conscious effort towards giving a student instruction and practice similar to that which, in the strictly professional schools, is considered well-nigh indispensable both for rounding out his training, and enabling him to see, ofttimes, that a mistake has been made in his choice of a vocation.

LINDSAY ROGERS.

Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md., August 15.

COLLEGE COMPOSITION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Still the crop of books on composition is ripening: you can almost hear them patter; you can almost see them fall. To-day it is Business English and Correspondence; yesterday it was Prose Narratives and Essays in Exposition; these latter followed Essays in Modern Thought and Essays for College Men; and these, in turn, were preceded by Theory and Practice of Technical Writing, and always the host of rhetorics, each emphasizing a cherished discipline. In the old days it was the intensive study of special authors, with composition on the side, and in the days before that, treatises on rhetoric as a branch of philosophical inquiry. Rhetoric to the Greeks was again quite another matter. And so the thing goes round and round, not, to be sure, in a perfect circle; there are wheelings within wheelings, epicycles, conic sections (to indulge the figure), and hyperbolas. Perhaps this whirl is not so wanton as, at first glance, it appears. It may somehow spin itself into order. Anyway, aggressive differences are supposed to be more excellent than a satisfied hush.

But just where we are now, whither we are tending, what the study of composition will be twenty years hence, only a very bold man will venture to prophesy. One condition, however, is apparently stable, as stable as a multitude of facts and constant iteration can make it so—the average youth of to-day in this country murders his native or adopted tongue. And that is why "English" has been made compulsory in our colleges; why, also, as the condition does not seem to improve, new schemes (never new) and fresh methods (never fresh) are being constantly flipped into the caldron.

Composition in the lower schools is also suffering at this moment from hectic theory and experiment. A rather frail wagon is hitched to its star. The over-emphasis on oral composition threatens to magnify the pupil's readiness at the expense of his exactness, and the plethora of "dramatization" may divert the few at the expense of disciplining the many. The facts proclaim that high-school pupils need more of a call to drill and less of incitements to glory. The special pleaders, however, who appear to occupy the high places, are turning out pupils with a strangely distorted conception of what the nature of composition really is, how stern and humdrum and modestly useful, as useful, in fact, as grammar. When composition again comes to its own in the high school, perhaps the college will find that it can sit a while and ponder. The conclusions of this questioning, to be sure, will be devious; there are intimations, however, that a good many teachers are calling for a separation of composition as taught in the high school from composition as taught in college. They reason somewhat in this wise.

Why have the departments of English in our colleges been carrying the entire burden of composition? Has, indeed, composition a more intimate relation with imaginative literature than it has with any other kind of literature, the sort that historians write, for instance, or scientists or philosophers? To be sure, it has not, and to establish the fact the unnumbered compilations of "models" are replete not only with their descriptions and narratives (belles-lettres), not only with their criticisms, their discussions of the curriculum, their unending disputes between science and literature, but as well with their legal and political documents, and finally with the most profound matter—whether we ought to believe or ought not to believe, and if we believe, how much belief will leave the soul pure. The department of English is straining to become a forum of discussion of all questions that have assailed human intelligence.

Now, the motives underlying this appropriation on the part of the teachers of English are surely unexceptionable. Why should not students be put in touch with the whole range of thought? Yet what a load it puts upon one department! These instructors of English are asked to become actively conversant with science, politics, philosophy. Though still devotees of belles-lettres, they are also striving to speak with authority on every other subject. The wisdom of the age is theirs. Frankly, the assumption is rather startling. May not a cog have slipped somewhere?

Would it not be possible, we wonder, to inveigle other departments—history, economics, philosophy—to take upon themselves a part of this burden? The department of English could furnish them with sterling models; it could point to the choicest titbits of a century. How to handle argument it knows from the enunciation of the question to the final clinching sentence on any side of any subject. An able-bodied instructor in economics, say, could cover the whole field of argumentation in a week of evenings. Perhaps he could even simplify the scheme a trifle.

If departments other than that of English would be willing to shoulder a part of this burden of composition, there might be some wholesome readjustments all along the line. A teacher of the subject in the lower schools might still be attached to the department of English. The pupils there are less apt to be called upon to sweep the horizon. But in college this assumption of a knowledge of the universe is in danger of inducing mental breakdown. Sometimes it would seem as if the new departments of journalism were unique in knowing what they are driving at. And when it is certain that they bid for quality as well as for numbers, and content themselves with a special field, it looks as if they could care for their own. But those students who are not attracted to journalism

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are turned into the department of English, whose apparent function is the study of imaginative literature, but whose present vocation on the side of composition is a vague encroachment into fields for which their training is palpably not of collegiate standing. If colleges would only insist that those who come to them shall submit stuff that no longer needs to be proof-read, there is no obvious reason why all departments—economics, history, science, philosophy, belles-lettres—should not attend to their students' expression. Advanced courses in rhetoric for those who desire a special training could well be manned by the department of English.

Such a scheme as I have suggested demands, to be sure, much further discussion. I simply offer the foregoing as a sort of footnote to much that has already been written on this disquieting topic.

EDWARD A. THURBER.

Colorado Springs, July 10.

A SUGGESTION FOR HUMANIZING ELEMENTARY LATIN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: No doubt the war has given considerable impetus to the study of Cæsar in the schools. Perhaps it is therefore an inopportune time to call attention to the disadvantages of the "Gallic War" as the first piece of Latin literature studied by most pupils. It may seem an impertinence, too, for one who is not a Latin scholar, but only a lover of Latin, to express an opinion in regard to Latin teaching. Yet I should like to advance for what it is worth a suggestion which I have had in mind for some time, in the hope that it may be discussed by those who are better fitted to judge of its value than I am.

It originated in my brief experience in teaching high-school Latin a number of years ago. In the earlier years the chief difficulty, I believe, is in getting pupils to realize that Latin is a language which people actually talked and thought and lived in. When a student has once grasped this fact, he can scarcely fail to be interested. Now, from this point of view, I think it would be rather hard to select more inappropriate books for the beginner than the "Commentaries," Cicero's Orations, and the "Æneid." It is as if, in French or German schools, the beginner in English should be required to read first Gibbon and then Burke, with "Paradise Lost" as the next course, and as if the primer were to be based on Gibbon! Is not the analogy a fair one? And could any student imagine, or any teacher be expected to convince him, that English was anything more than an elaborate instrument of great writers? Would the foreign student dream that people made love, and swore, and gossiped, and quarrelled in that stately and formal medium with which he was so imperfectly acquainted?

My suggestion is briefly this: that instead of driving the beginner through an elaborate military history, with its intricate grammatical constructions and its artificial word order, utterly different from anything he has known, we should lead him to literary Latin through colloquial Latin, using Latin comedy as a basis. I know that in recent years encouraging experiments in this direction have been made; but so far as I am aware, they have not included my capital point—the substitution of Plautus for Cæsar as a basis for elementary texts. Let some scholars select two or three of the plays of Plautus; perhaps the "Menaechmi" and the "Miles Gloriosus" might be used. Let these be expurgated so far as is expedient, and edited for the beginner, and let a first Latin book based on these be prepared. I must not trespass on your space by arguing at length the advantages of such a plan, but perhaps I may mention some of them:

(1.) The average student would find Latin far more interesting, because he could scarcely fail to recognize early that it is a language in which people lived.

(2.) He could begin earlier really to read Latin, and would find it far easier, because two of the great difficulties, elaborate construction and artificial word order, would be in considerable degree postponed till he was ready to grapple with them. There is difficulty enough for the beginner in acquiring a new vocabulary and a new grammar; the difficulties of formal literary style and artificial word order would be much less formidable if they could be postponed till the student had in some measure mastered the others.

(3.) The general vocabulary which the beginner would acquire in reading Plautus would be on the whole more serviceable to him in his later reading than the specialized military vocabulary of Cæsar.

(4.) A knowledge of Plautus would be more valuable to him in his study of modern literature than a knowledge of Cæsar. I need not point out how essential to the understanding of either French or English comedy is some knowledge of Plautus. On the other hand, Cæsar's influence upon modern literature is almost negligible.

After the student's reading of Plautus, I would have him read parts of the "Metamorphoses" and of Petronius; then something of Cicero—perhaps a couple of orations, the "Somnium Scipionis," and some selected letters; then something of Livy or Sallust, and of Virgil. The details of the programme do not especially matter; it might be varied in numerous ways. But would not such a list of books present Latin literature as a far more human thing than what the schoolboy sees at present? And would it not be practicable?

If this plan really has the advantages which I have mentioned, it should enable the student to make considerably more rapid progress than he now makes. It might enable him to meet the entrance requirements of the more liberal colleges even as they stand. At all events, I should like to see the plan discussed.

J. P.

Chicago, August 26.

RELIGION AND AMERICAN UNIVERSITIES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is a current misconception that our undenominational State universities are irreligious, whereas from personal experience with at least four of the leading institutions in America I am led to believe that State and undenominational institutions are actually more religious than so-called out-and-out denominational institutions. Perhaps the reason is self-evident. The denominational institution must be on its guard against the attack of overdoing religion or rest on the assurance that the denominational name makes it sufficiently religious; while the undenominational institution must ward off the charge of irreligion by emphasizing the religious and moral life. For example, take the University of Illinois, which had a great task, especially about a dozen years ago, in convincing the people of the State that the institution was not irreligious. To-day it would be difficult to find a university in the country that is pervaded, both faculty and students, by a deeper religious atmosphere, where the faculty are so little given to boasting skepticism and making light of orthodoxy and tradition. And yet the University of Illinois holds neither a daily nor weekly chapel service, all such functions being performed by the Y. M. C. A. or denominational student churches. The moral atmosphere is unusually high and the community has been dry for several years, a State statute forbidding a saloon within four miles of the University. Smoking is prohibited on the campus and about the buildings, although the reason is protection against fire, since the State of Illinois does not permit the University to insure its buildings.

But though, as at the University of Illinois, some of our denominations have student churches for the purpose of "holding together" the students of their denominations, anything like a concerted, well-organized, and well-standardized work in religious education is lacking. For some reason, the denominations have not felt this decidedly strong obligation to create a thoroughly standardized coöperative school of religion as an adjunct of the undenominational university, where courses in religion can be put on an equal basis with all of the courses of study of a university curriculum.

Here is the problem, more concretely. At a meeting of the representatives of one of the largest denominations in the United States, it was discovered that the denomination had more of its students at the University of Illinois than in all of its denominational colleges in the State combined. According to a recent report of the Registrar of the University, of a total of 3,253 voluntary answers, there were 907 Methodists, 617 Presbyterians, 264 Congregationalists, 239 Disciples, 228 Baptists, 214 Catholics, 195 Episcopalians—with forty-one shades of belief, including one agnostic, one Confucianist, and several Hindus. While money is being spent, therefore, on a couple of hundred students in a denominational institution, why should the obligation to twice as many thousand at a great university be neglected? Theological schools of a bare hundred students have an endowment of a million dollars, but where is the Christian financier who wishes to invest his thousands of dollars at one of these undenominational centres of learning where every year there are thousands as against the hundreds who in a score of years will be the church-leaders as well as community-leaders wherever they chance to be situated?

It may be argued that we have not yet attained a sufficiently high standard of civilization to coöperate in religious education. Then, where is the Moses of religious education to lead the denominations out of the wilderness by doing for them what Andrew Carnegie has done for libraries and the Rockefeller Foundation for the small college—namely, to create a school of religion at an undenominational university?

VERGIL V. PHELPS.

Urbana, Ill., June 11.

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REVIEWS

AN EXAMINATION OF THE TEXTBOOKS PUBLISHED SINCE LAST SPRING AND OF CERTAIN OTHER WORKS BEARING ON EDUCATION.

EDUCATIONAL THEORY.

"Education for Industrial Workers" (World Book Co.; 90 cents), by Dr. Herman Schneider, who organized the coöperative courses in connection with the University of Cincinnati, is by intention Dr. Schneider's share of the Hanus report upon the New York city schools; in fact, it amounts to a brief and rather interesting exposition of the author's ideas about industrial education. Of particular interest is the distinction between the energizing and the enervating trades—such as those which involve the automatic process of feeding a machine. Dr. Schneider points out that industrial education has hitherto favored the energizing trades, in which also the nature of the work renders the mental conditions more favorable. Yet the larger and more pressing problem relates to the enervating trades; and for this the author offers no clear solution.

Probably few of our readers are interested in rural schools. Yet a book of well-considered practical suggestions for the elementary teacher, written in clear and dignified English, with no pretension to educational philosophy and an entire freedom from cant, by a supervisor of training in a State normal school—such a volume is surely worthy of note; and such is the little book entitled "Everyday Pedagogy: With Special Application to the Rural School," by Lillian I. Lincoln (Ginn; $1).

A different and more typical product of the normal school is E. L. Kemp's "Methods for Elementary and Secondary Schools" (Lippincott; $1.25). Gov. Brumbaugh's Introduction assures us that, in contrast to all other works upon method, this is the vital and real thing. Mr. Kemp adds to the obvious a certain warmth of eloquence; otherwise his book does not differ from others of its class.

"Learning by Doing" (Bobbs-Merrill), by Edgar James Swift, of Washington University, is a fine example of pedagogy with a punch. The latest volume upon Youth and Doing is marked, like the others, by that peculiar effervescence of style which is characteristic of the *Saturday Evening Post*, from which some of the material is drawn. We have no doubt that "Learning by Doing" will be a pedagogical best seller.

That "Handwork as an Educational Medium" (Macmillan; $1), by Philip Boswood Ballard, should call for a second edition seems to indicate that English school teachers are not yet as completely saturated with pedagogical literature as those of the United States. The arrangement of the book suggests a somewhat haphazard collection of essays following in the main the ideas of Professor Dewey. Yet most of the chapters are good reading; it is clear that Mr. Ballard writes from independent personal conviction. And the chapter on Ambidexterity, if somewhat parenthetical, is curiously interesting; in this chapter we learn of an Ambidextral Culture Society, whose views Dr. Ballard condemns.

"History of Education," by Patrick J. McCormick (Catholic Education Press, Washington, D. C.), is scholarly in tone, and makes the subject interesting. Though written especially for Catholic teachers, we think that the Protestant reader would find few grounds for complaint. The book differs from other textbooks of the history of education mainly in the emphasis laid upon mediæval education and mediæval universities, which, according to Prof. McCormick, not only preserved the literature of antiquity, but laid the basis of the education of a considerable portion of modern society. "What has survived to-day in university or higher education, and largely in secondary, is the direct bequest of the scholastic teachers."

Under the title of "Readings in Vocational Guidance" (Ginn; $2.25), Meyer Bloomfield, of the Boston Vocation Bureau, has collected some forty-odd addresses, articles, and reports, mostly by writers well known in the field of education, which form as a whole a kind of small encyclopædia of vocational guidance. Some of the articles are theoretical, but the greater number are concerned with special aspects of fact, such as the conditions and opportunities in various occupations and in various places, and the natural vocational choices of children in the schools. The contributions are naturally of unequal merit and importance, but the book is the first extended presentation of the ideas and facts underlying a new movement, and it should be a useful volume to those who wish to study the possibilities of vocational guidance.

The dean of women is a new figure in educational circles. She has arisen in the last quarter-century as a result of the growth of co-educational colleges. Beginning with the anomalous office of preceptress or adviser of women, she has gained in dignity until, in the State universities of the West, she enjoys the title and authority of a dean. This development is recited in a somewhat querulous voice by Lois Kimball Mathews in "The Dean of Women" (Houghton Mifflin; $1.50). The problems and duties of that dignitary are yet ill-defined and far from uniformly interpreted. In fact, Dean Mathews is the first to essay a discussion of her position and opportunities. For this important task she is excellently equipped. She not only has the experience necessary, she not only takes a broad view of the educational situation, but her understanding of young women is intimate, and her vision is not dimmed by prepossessions in favor of her sex. She casts no halo of glory about the undergraduate girl. She perceives clearly the difficulties that confront her and her besetting weaknesses. Such practical matters as living conditions and means of employment she discusses with the same clarity and ease that are found in chapters on Self-Government Associations and Problems of Student Discipline. Vocational guidance is not brought out of the nebulous state in which it now floats in most minds, but the social life of the students, with their eagerness for extra-curricular activities, as well as their intellectual life and "docile minds," are described from sage experience. For the office of dean of women the writer has a jealous regard. The incumbent should be a scholar who will win respect from the most austere of her male associates. She should be a teacher of exceptional ability to expound and inspire. She should discharge her administrative duties with ease and dispatch, never making a mistake of judgment and always stoutly abiding by her decisions. She should not only be able to dress with taste and distinction, and to entertain university presidents and awkward freshmen with equal grace and charm, but she should likewise have run in her own life a wide gamut of joy and sorrow, in order that she may help sympathetically all the various types of girls in her charge. In short, all requisites are mentioned except a pair of wings. As a counsel of perfection the volume should aid all who are beset with the perplexities surrounding the administration of the women's part of a university.

A wholly admirable handbook and guide for parents and others interested in private schools is Sargent's "The Best Private Schools" (Boston: Porter E. Sargent). It is an attractive volume of convenient size, announced as the first of a series of annual handbooks relating to education and travel. Various divisions of the book consider boys' schools, girls' schools, co-educational schools, special schools (including those devoted to music, art, kindergarten training, physical education, dramatic training, household arts), the private schools of Canada; directories of associations, periodicals, teachers' agencies, outfitters and dealers in school supplies. All this information is compactly and agreeably given. There is a brief history of each school, and a description of its character and peculiar advantages. In reading these accounts one feels that the writer is fair in his judgments, and that he is quite able to tell a good school from a bad one—even if the latter is brought to his attention by a glowing prospectus. One is reminded often of Baedeker. (Here it might be stated that school authorities are requested to send Mr. Sargent their catalogues and announcements.) We believe that many fathers and mothers will find this handbook most useful.

In "The College Course and the Preparation for Life" (Houghton Mifflin; $1.25), President A. P. Fitch, of the Andover Theological Seminary, discusses the serious problem of the instruction of undergraduates in our colleges. The "talks," given at Williams College, are manly and racy. Dr. Fitch speaks as an older comrade who knows the intellectual and spiritual difficulties of the undergraduate, and appeals to his common sense and to his higher ideals. Defining religion, not as dogma or custom, but as a force and a life, he urges on the young student the fact that the object of the college course is to make of him a thoughtful and conscientious man. He insists on a broad scheme of study, one fitted to give a full and well-rounded development, dwelling particularly on the value of scholarship and the cultivation of a taste for the beautiful. Collegiate illiteracy he pictures with friendly ridicule and biting sarcasm. Read widely, he says, going perhaps a trifle too far in liberality when he advises that "Tom Jones" should lie on the student's study desk as it lay upon Lowell's; "Tom Jones" is not food for babes, and Lowell and the undergraduate are two different persons. Dr. Fitch's volume is a vigorous and persuasive presentation of what the undergraduate may and should do, and it deserves to find a place in every student's library.

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ENGLISH.

LINGUISTICS.

The revision of Emerson's "Middle English Reader" (Macmillan; $2 net), the most useful book in its field, shows some improvements over the first edition, for a year or more out of print. The glossary, the least satisfactory part of the original volume, has been entirely recomposed and purged of a handful of "howlers" that disfigured it. The list of irregular verbs has been omitted, but in compensation inflectional forms appear more numerously in the glossary. A few corrections have been made in the notes. Bishop Poor now appears correctly, but somewhat paradoxically, as "Rich. Poor" (p. 305). In some cases, as in Trevisa's translation of the "Polychronicon," the text has been reset. Additional matter may be found here and there in the valuable grammatical introduction. A point or two escaped correction; in §94 "O. E. palatal stop c" should read "guttural stop," and "W. S. *hleihan*," in §103, 2, has an odd look.

RHETORIC AND COMPOSITION.

The book of the hour for the college student is the volume of essays, usually pretty solemn, designed to start in the freshman a flow of ideas on such subjects as evolution, democracy, theology, and the like. Two rather refreshing variations of this type are "Modern Essays," selected by Prof. J. M. Berdan, and J. R. Schultz and H. E. Joyce, instructors in Yale College (Macmillan; $1.25 net), and "College and the Future," edited by Prof. Richard Rice, jr. (Scribner). In the first the selections are almost without exception of the twentieth century, or not long before; Whistler, Chesterton, and Stephen Leacock are only some of the essayists who give an airy lightness to the collection. It is pleasant and interesting throughout. There should be no great difficulty in getting college students to read it, at any rate; particularly Yale men, for the home product is amply represented.

Professor Rice's selections are serious, but they deal for the most part with questions as they concern campus life—Oxford, athletics, religion, studies. Indeed, the "college," in the hands of Newman, William James, and many others, including the compiler himself, is rather more adequately treated than the "future," which might, perhaps, in a book of this kind have been left to take care of itself, instead of to H. G. Wells.

Prof. John Louis Haney has arranged alphabetically under the title "Good English" (Philadelphia: Egerton Press) a number of notes on linguistic usage, many of which were contributed to the *Ladies' Home Journal*. Some very obvious errors and some extremely recent locutions receive comment, but the book is not a mere list of "don'ts"; it is tolerant in its judgments and sensible in its explanations. No one will grudge the author his occasional little dogmatisms. When he assures us that "*where* should not be used for *in which*, as, 'This is the house *where* I lived for ten years'" (p. 225), we are fain to remember "the house where I was born."

A similar and briefer list forms a useful appendix to Genung and Hanson's "Outlines of Composition and Rhetoric" (Ginn; $1). For the rest it follows traditional lines in the discussion of structure and type, inculcating its doctrine largely by means of horrible example to be corrected.

Picking up a new collection of short stories, one wonders what excuse the compiler can offer for his undertaking. In a field so thickly sown, why should a new head appear? But Mr. Leonard B. Moulton has proved in "Short Stories" (Houghton Mifflin; 40 cents net) that there is room for one more volume. He has no historical bee in his bonnet. The Egyptians and Boccaccio are left centuries behind. The great masters of the form are almost entirely neglected. The classics in this genre are uniformly omitted. Neither is he a worshipper of technique. Atmosphere and character and suspense are no more the goal for the student than they have been the guide for the editor. The result is an unusually fresh set of short fiction, gathered together because the life dealt with therein was thought to be of interest to boys and girls in high school, for whom the selection was made. The introduction, for the pupil, is little over four pages in length. The note following each story, omitting all biographical detail, indicates clearly by questions the content and significance of the specimen. There is comment on the craftsmanship or art of the narrator, but only such comment as should help to increase the pupil's pleasure in short fiction. In sympathetic hands the book ought to accomplish much in arousing an intelligent liking for this popular form of art.

Variety is the dominant note of the attractive volume, "Writing of To-day: Models of Journalistic Prose," made up of articles chosen by Profs. J. W. Cunliffe and Gerhard R. Lomer of the School of Journalism at Columbia University (Century; $1.50 net). This variety is exhibited in range of matter presented, which includes descriptive, narrative, editorial, and humorous articles, as also interviews and criticism, literary, dramatic, musical, and art; it is shown also in the length and character of the selections. Every group of them is prefaced by a concise analysis of the kind of writing represented in it, with practical hints for the novice. There is no denying the interest of the contents of the volume, with its accounts of "The Miracle of the Movie," "How I Found the South Pole," "Henry James's First Interview," "The War in Art," and so on for a hundred titles more, but the question is whether the pupil in English composition will find the ways to satisfactory writing better greased by these examples of "subjects of immediate interest" than by the traditional subjects "outside of his every-day interests." An outsider is tempted to fancy that a pupil would be as disheartened by having James Bryce's "Impressions of Palestine" held up as a model as he is supposed to be by the masterpieces of Addison and Macaulay.

SELECTED TEXTS.

As a supplement to the work in composition and rhetoric, a volume of "Readings from Literature" has been prepared by Reuben Post Halleck and Elizabeth G. Barbour (American Book Company). Prose and verse alternate, moderns jostle "classics," rising in a sort of climax from the ridiculousness of Bunner to the sublimity of Milton. It must be said the selections are interesting, and carry an air of completeness.

The Oxford University Press has just published Abraham Cowley's "Essays and Other Prose Writings" ($1.10), edited, with an introduction and notes, by Alfred B. Gough. It is the best inexpensive annotated edition. The volume contains all of Cowley's prose, except his preface to "Poetical Blossoms" and his letters. Each of the texts is based upon the first edition, including the very rare 1661 edition of "A Vision concerning Cromwell the Wicked." The introduction gives a trustworthy account of Cowley's life, a judicious estimate of his personality, and sufficient bibliographical guidance; but it says too little about Cowley's position in the history of English prose. Dr. Gough's comments on this important topic are, one regrets to find, scattered among the notes, where they are likely to be overlooked. The notes fill two-thirds as much space as the text; and leave no difficulty or allusion—grammatical, literary, biblical, or historical—unexplained. Some of them seem (to paraphrase Butler)

> Fit to take lodgings in a head
> That's to be let unfurnished.

It is doubtful whether any one likely to read Cowley requires a definition of such terms as "syllogism" or "mountebank." Yet the careful explanations of Cowley's allusions to ancient and modern political history unfortunately cannot, in the present state of undergraduate knowledge, be considered superfluous. Dr. Gough's critical interpretations are on the whole sound, but somewhat limited in range. For example, he does not point out the value of the "Preface to the Cutter of Coleman Street" as the first important defence of Restoration comedy against just the kind of attacks which it long endured but to which it finally succumbed. In commenting upon "A Vision Concerning Cromwell," he is so preoccupied with correcting errors arising from Cowley's partisanship that he fails to mention some of its most significant aspects. To open the eyes of modern readers to the full meaning of the "Vision" in its own time, he might well have remarked that Cowley's description of the temper and methods of a tyrant implies a confident hope, then widespread, that the Stuarts would reign in the spirit of constitutional liberty. Though Cowley exaggerated the faults of Cromwell, his philippic is of permanent value as a fervid warning against that forceful and unscrupulous type of personality which is nowadays termed the superman, and by which nations recurrently allow themselves to be fascinated and enslaved.

To the Riverside Literature series (Houghton Mifflin; 25 cents) has been added "Selections from American Poetry," by Dr. Frederick H. Law; shorter poems of Longfellow, Whittier, Poe, Lowell, Bryant, Emerson, Holmes, and Whitman, a half-dozen more or less to each, together with the necessary editorial matter.

GRAMMAR, ELOCUTION AND DEBATING.

A revised edition has appeared of Ella M. Boyce's "Enunciation and Articulation" (Ginn; 30 cents). Word lists and illustrated exercises make up the bulk of the volume. One would suppose that teachers might welcome phonetic descriptions somewhat more detailed than those provided. A list of words commonly mispronounced is appended. It is not always perfectly trustworthy. We hope, at least, that no one will accept its recommendation to pronounce "stomacher" with a "k."

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"Teaching to Read," by Nellie E. Turner (American Book Company), does not concern itself directly with the work of the primary grades. It offers a methodology for teachers, and by means of elaborate question and answer dissects a great many very ingeniously selected passages, with a view to making clear such elocutionary matters as grouping, contrast, parenthesis, repetition. But teachers of reading anywhere will find it suggestive; it offers an effective club to drive "THE cat and THE dog" from our schools.

Another book composed for the teacher is Prof. Paul Klapper's "The Teaching of English" (Appleton; $1.25 net). In a series of chapters written in the tone of straightforward classroom lecturing, in which occasional split infinitives do not seem particularly shocking, the teacher is taught strategy useful in the long battle of the double negative; she learns how to provide the child with something to write about, how to stir his imagination by furnishing him with models above his level in tone; how to teach him to spell, and many other things. Much of this, no doubt, a good teacher knows already, but even such a one may well find the formulation of it useful.

Much of the matter in William Horton Foster's little book, "Debating for Boys" (Sturgis & Walton; $1 net), first appeared in a magazine for Boy Scouts. In its present form, it should interest new readers. It does not attempt an over-simplification of the serious business that genuine debating is, but the author has a knack of putting things concretely that enables him to discuss "terms" and "issues" and "clash of arguments" in a way to be comprehended of youthful minds. He writes of even the tests of evidence without darkening counsel. He lays stress upon fairness, presents by means of a narrative the proper procedure for organizing a society, gives a summary of parliamentary rules, and furnishes in appendices a long list of questions for debate, hints on how to judge a debate, and a model constitution for a boys' debating club. The chapter on The Ford Hall Town Meeting seems out of place in a book for boys.

MODERN LANGUAGES.

FRENCH.

Allen and Schoell's "French Life" (Holt) is a first-year reader comprising over fifty French sketches averaging a little more than a page in length, a few dialogues, sets of questions on the subject-matter, and answers from which the student is to work back to the questions, and a vocabulary. The sketches, which treat of a variety of practical matters, such as the house, garden, city, schoolroom, modern inventions, newspaper, weather, etc., have in general been skilfully composed, and considerable care has been taken in interrelating them as to subject-matter, vocabulary, and idioms.

"Le Premier Livre," an attractive beginners' book suitable for preparatory-school work, has been prepared by A. A. and B. Méras (American Book Co.; 64 cents). Designed both as reader and grammar for the first half-year, it consists of sixty lessons, the reading portions of which are adapted from Malot's "Sans Famille," while the grammatical parts contain the essential facts of grammar and paragraphs for drill in conversation and composition.

A prominent feature of Professor Olmsted's "Elementary French Grammar" (Holt) is an abundance of material for drill—grammatical questions to be answered in French, reading exercises, conversations, compositions, and oral exercises—appended to the lessons, of which there are forty-three. The grammatical material is grouped with good judgment, and careful choice of type aids the clearness of its presentation.

Racine's "Bérénice," edited with introduction and notes by R. E. Pellissier, is the latest addition to the Oxford French series (35 cents). This series is published by American scholars, under the general editorship of Professor Weeks. The introduction presents a clear account of the problem of the two Bérénices, prudently concluding that until new facts are brought to light it will not be solved.

"Les Boulinard," the amusing play by Orconneau, Valabrègue and Kéroul, edited, with introduction, notes, *questionnaire*, exercises, and vocabulary, by F. G. Harriman, is a recent addition to Heath's Modern Language series (30 cents).

Dumas's "Vingt Ans Après" has been ably edited for Ginn (60 cents net), with notes and vocabulary, by O. B. Super.

The *ballades* of yester-year are studied industriously by Helen L. Cohen in a recent Columbia dissertation ("The Ballade"; Columbia University Press; $1.75). The five chapters discuss the origin of the *ballade*, its fortune in France from 1400 to 1650, its treatment by French theorists of the same period, the Middle English *ballade*, and the recent revival of the form in France and England. Many *ballades* are printed in full, often from manuscripts or old editions; the volume has almost the look of a *ballade* anthology. The best chapter is that on the *ballade* in Middle English. Here the number of poems in question is so small as to permit individual study, and the resulting criticism is valuable. In the rest of the book very little—aside from the texts themselves—is really new. The later chapters, to be sure, offer slight chance for originality; but one might fairly expect, in a doctor's thesis, a fresh attempt to solve the difficult problem of the origin of the *ballade*, rather than a hesitant summary of conflicting opinions. The footnotes and bibliography are disfigured by the applying of the English system of capitalization to all foreign titles.

GERMAN.

M. H. Haertel's "German Reader for Beginners" (Ginn; 60 cents net) contains a singularly felicitous selection of fairy tales, those from Andersen and Grimm wisely modernized as to language, two by Baumbach and one by Mörike reprinted essentially in the original form. Besides these carefully graded pieces, there are a dozen well-known poems, mostly of a legendary character. Questions in German and narrative paragraphs for retranslation into German follow the texts. A further useful feature is a series of words upon which pupils may exercise their memory. The excellent vocabulary makes notes to the text unnecessary.

A manual for the teaching of German according to the direct method inevitably seems complicated, and its innumerable questions and answers, proper and natural in oral use, seem out of place in print. Examination of such a book is seldom cheering. It may be said, however, of W. D. Zinnecker's "Deutsch für Anfänger" (Heath; $1.25 net) that the material basis of the instruction is not uninteresting, that this material is thoroughly elaborated, and that a discreet use of English for explanation and translation encourages the teacher to modify his "directness" so far as may be expedient. An appendix contains a brief but clear chapter on German phonetics, a tabulation of grammatical forms, and sundry vocabularies.

The third issue of Calvin Thomas's edition of "Hermann und Dorothea" (Holt; 60 cents) is virtually a new book and is an excellent example of well-proportioned directness. The editor adopts Kullmer's identification of Pössneck in Thuringia as the little town from which Goethe derived the local color for the scene of his story. The historical antecedents of the plot are briefly set forth, and there are judicious remarks concerning the style and form of the epic. The notes and vocabulary leave nothing to be desired.

Prof. Arthur H. Palmer's edition of "Wilhelm Tell" has been entirely reset and revised, and is now put forth as a suitable text for secondary schools (Holt). Introduction, vocabulary, notes, and a new section of *Fragen*, prepared by Prof. Charles M. Purin, furnish a most serviceable apparatus for teacher and student alike.

Paul V. Bacon's "Vorwärts" (Allyn & Bacon) resembles the author's "Im Vaterland" in method and in general appearance, but is more elementary and, as a German reader for beginners, is more obviously graded. Systematic drill in the principal points of syntax is unobtrusively woven into the text, and equally systematic repetition of words and expressions, though it does not enliven the narrative, serves to fix essentials in mind. Enlivenment is sought rather in the actuality of the substance and the profusion of illustrations, many of which are evidently from original photographs. The book is unmistakably a skilful compilation.

"Herder and Klopstock," by Dr. F. H. Adler (Stechert; $1), is a comparative study which aims to present in a new light the relations of these two notable forerunners of Germany's greatest literary period. The author shows how the new world of ideas created by Klopstock found sympathetic response in Herder, and how the latter, by his precept, vindicated the rights of imagination, of the Germanic spirit, and of that type of religion which is focussed on humanity rather than on theology. The last section of the book contains a more detailed and technical study of the poetic language of the two men. Dr. Adler is to be congratulated on his unflagging enthusiasm for his subject; there is never even the slightest intimation of the turgidity and pedantic heaviness which characterize the poetry of Klopstock and render it so utterly unenjoyable to most modern readers. The larger bearings of the subject—for instance, in connection with the Romanic Movement—are only cursorily indicated.

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ITALIAN.

An Italian Dictionary. By Alfred Hoare. Cambridge: University Press; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

The many readers who have long been baffled or disappointed by the existing Italian-English dictionaries will welcome Mr. Alfred Hoare's work. It is a strange and by no means a creditable fact, that while excellent dictionaries have been available for English-speaking students of French, Spanish, and German for half a century or more, Italian has been neglected. To say, therefore, that Mr. Hoare's is the best might not mean much if "best" were construed relatively. But judged by any standard, it is an admirable lexicon.

Mr. Hoare's chief aim is to make it as practically useful as possible. With this in view, he resorts to many original devices. For instance, he endeavors to grade words according to the frequency with which they occur in the spoken or written language. He places first the commonest definition, next the rarer or dialect meaning, and finally the obsolete use. And to enable the reader to perceive at a glance these distinctions, he employs different fonts of type, as well as various symbols. It may require a day's practice to get used to these devices of his, but when they are once learned their reasonableness is recognized, and they save much time.

Mr. Hoare does not attempt to give all the words, living or dead, in the Italian language; but he does give those which the reader of either current books and newspapers or of the classical Italian authors is most likely to meet. Of course, there can never be an absolutely exact line drawn with any such classification, and no doubt each reader will look in vain in Mr. Hoare's Dictionary for words which he expected to find there. But on the whole the inclusions are very comprehensive, and the exclusions have generally a valid reason.

Among Mr. Hoare's points of excellence is the attention he has devoted to pronunciation. By the use of easily understood accents he makes clear, not only the syllabic emphasis of each word, but also the open and close sounds of *e* and of *o* and the two sounds of *zz*. His devices for indicating diminutives, augmentatives, etc., are clearly thought out. For a work in which compression is carried as far as possible without resulting in the puzzles which some etymologists put before us, this Dictionary quotes a considerable number of illustrative passages, Dante being naturally the chief authority cited.

Wherever we have tested the Dictionary we have found it satisfactory; and this is true also of the appendix, in which Mr. Hoare furnishes an English-Italian vocabulary, much briefer than the other part, but still sufficient for the needs of the average reader.

We regret that this work should not have been issued in a smaller format and at a price within reach of the purses of all those who would like to own it. The broad quarto page, with its clear type, is handsome, but an octavo would have permitted the production of a volume more convenient and less expensive.

Professor Grandgent's "Italian Grammar" (Heath; $1 net), since its first appearance in 1887 *facile princeps* in its field, has undergone a thorough revision both by its author and by Prof. E. H. Wilkins, of Chicago, who has provided a new set of forty-one exercises, a vocabulary, and a useful note on reading Italian verse, with examples from Pascoli and Carducci. The new exercises are a model of their kind, particular ingenuity being shown in the sentences, which not only aptly illustrate points of grammar, but are agreeably free from the artificiality and feebleness of sense that few compilers of grammars seem able to avoid. In its revised form this excellent book should long prove useful to students of Italian.

SPANISH.

The brothers Serafín and Joaquín Alvarez Quintero are among the best of contemporary Spanish playwrights. In editing their "Doña Clarines" and "Mañana de Sol" (Heath; 50 cents net), Prof. S. Griswold Morley has made available for American students two of the brightest playlets which have been produced recently in Madrid. The first of these, a comedy of character, has for its heroine a spinster who speaks the truth on all occasions regardless of consequence. To render so formidable a personage sympathetic and dignified without losing an opportunity for comic effect demands delicacy of treatment; but the brothers Alvarez have succeeded in making the all too candid Doña Clarines as likable as she is disconcerting. "Mañana de Sol" is a charming little one-act idyl. It represents the meeting in old age of two former lovers. Like many other humorists, the Alvarez excel in pathos. Both these texts provide idiomatic Spanish, sufficiently simple to be used early in the course. The notes and vocabulary leave nothing to be desired.

RUSSIAN.

The study of Russian is still in its infancy both in England and America, so that no series of textbooks has been developed to meet the wants of students. The book that is best adapted to classroom use is the "Russian Conversation-Grammar" of Pietro Motti, a volume written by an Italian who was imperfectly acquainted with English and still more imperfectly with Russian; naturally it is crammed with mistakes. The "Russian Reader," composed for French students by Boyer and Speranski, on the basis of Tolstoy's tales for peasant children, and translated and adapted for English use by Professor Harper, is admirable in plan and, except for a few insignificant slips, in execution; nothing better of its own sort could be desired. But some elementary introduction to Russian grammar must be used with it. To supply such an introduction seems to have been the aim of Dr. Nevill Forbes in his newly published "Russian Grammar" (Oxford University Press; $2), if one may judge from his own words in the preface:

> The accompanying volume is a practical rather than a scientific grammar. It is intended for the use of those students who are working under a teacher able to explain the difficulties of the language to them, and also for the use of those who are working at the language by themselves with the object of being able to read it; but it does not profess to be an adequate means of teaching any one working alone how to speak Russian.

The book itself hardly corresponds to this statement of purpose. It is of the same general type as the familiar Latin grammars, such as that of Allen and Greenough, on which generations of American boys have been brought up. From the point of view of a Slavic philologist it is elementary; from that of a learner it is an advanced work, and, without a graded lesson-book to accompany it, a bewildering treatise. It aims to answer most of the practical questions that would occur to readers of modern Russian authors. Dr. Forbes can hardly be blamed that his book is less clear and logical in its arrangement and in its phrasing of rules than Latin grammars that have been continually revised. He deserves a severe rebuke, however, for not providing any index whatever; to make the volume thoroughly useful both a Russian and an English index would be required. This is no place for detailed criticism of Dr. Forbes's work. The reviewer has found a few statements that are mistaken, and many that seemed to him misleading or clumsy in expression; to be specific, the section on relative and interrogative pronouns is by no means adequate. But as a whole, the grammar is so far superior to any that has hitherto been published in English that cavilling criticism would be ungrateful. One may hope that Dr. Forbes will now proceed to construct a graded lesson-book that will replace that of the egregious Motti. If he should make it specially adapted as an introduction to the Boyer and Speranski reader, the gain would be even greater.

PERSIAN.

A brief introduction to the study of Persian, in German ("Persische Erzählungen, mit Grammatik und Glossar) by Georg Rosen, remodelled by Friedrich Rosen (Leipzig: Veit & Co.), has just appeared. It contains a capital little grammatical sketch, compressed into thirty-five pages. Each word in the original Persian characters is transliterated also into Roman letters. Then follow some fifty pages of short stories in prose for translation, accompanied by an excellent glossary; and appended at the end are a few brief selections from classic Persian poets. The beginning might have had further help through being given an inkling in a word or two as to the short stories that make up the body of the book; but the whole work serves as an admirable introduction to the language and does credit to its later editor, who is not only a Persian scholar but a diplomatist as well, for he is the Ambassador of the Imperial German Government to Spain.

GOVERNMENT AND ECONOMICS.

To those college teachers of political science who wish to put into the hands of their students a book that tells what our Government does as well as what it is the volume on "The New American Government and Its Work," by Prof. James T. Young, of the University of Pennsylvania (Macmillan), will make a special appeal. As a textbook it has several features which distinguish it from others of its kind. For one thing there is an uncommonly full discussion of the powers of Congress and of the ways in which these powers reach the citizen. Judicial decisions are cited profusely, the author's design being, as he states in the preface, "to lend more reality, vividness, and clarity to a subject that is already beset by too many generalities." The prominence given to these decisions is especially marked in the chapters devoted to Federal and State regulation of commerce. Another commendable feature of the book is its comprehensive treatment of State administration, a subject which too many surveys

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of American government have passed over without adequate presentation. Social legislation, likewise, and the whole economic side of governmental activity have received the emphasis which their growing interest and importance warrant.

On the other hand, there are some serious omissions. The book contains little or no historical discussion, nothing about the antecedents of American government. Most teachers of political science believe that their students should first learn something about the way in which American government came to be before they plunge into the subject of what it is and does. More unfortunate still is the author's failure to include in the volume any consideration of municipal government in this country. That is an omission which surely should have had a word of explanation. In his endeavor to "picture the new government as it serves and helps the people" Dr. Young might well have drawn fine material from our municipal happenings of the last ten or fifteen years. The style of the book is clear and vigorous; there is no theorizing or chasing of political will-o'-the-wisps. It is hopeful in tone, yet never lapses into that shambling eloquence which too often mars the pages of such books. There are useful aids to teaching, including references for further reading and questions upon the text. The index, however, is ridiculously inadequate.

"An Introduction to the Economic History of England, I, The Middle Ages" (Macmillan; $2.50 net), is the first volume of what promises to be a valuable book for students of English history. The author, E. Lipson, of Trinity College, Cambridge, has embodied in some five hundred closely printed pages the most recent investigations of scholars in regard to the rise and fall of the manorial system, the merchant and craft guilds, fairs and markets, the beginnings of England's foreign trade, and the main features of the English revenue and exchequer system. But he does more than merely summarize the researches of others. His pages are full of interesting concrete examples and quotations from mediæval statutes and political poems. Students will be grateful to him for the numerous footnotes in which he indicates the sources from which his examples are drawn. In dealing with controversial points he shows good judgment in the opinions which he adopts and fairness in his statement of the views which he rejects. He rightly recognizes that most mediæval institutions are the result of complex factors and cannot be explained satisfactorily by a few brief formulas. Thus, as to the origin of the manor, he does not adopt exclusively either the Roman theory of Seebohm or the Teutonic view of Stubbs, but shows the probable influence of both Roman and Teuton factors. The chapter on the craft-guilds, over a hundred pages long, and perhaps the best in the book, gives a more rosy view of mediæval guilds than one usually finds. Incidentally the author sees a good deal of evidence of the activity of women in industry and trade. "There seems no adequate ground for the view that working-women were mainly 'unpaid domestic workers' following household occupations, rather than wage-earners supplying a market" (p. 317). In the excellent chapter on "The Woollen Industry" he notes the appearance of the word "blanket" in a Pipe Roll of 1182. This is more than a century before the earliest date given in Murray's Dictionary, and long before the time of that Thomas Blanket, bailiff of Bristol in 1340, who is popularly supposed to have given his name to a kind of woollen. Though entitled an "Introduction," this volume rather presupposes some knowledge of English history. It is more like the well-known economic histories of Ashley and of Cunningham than those of Gibbins and Cheyney.

HISTORY.

AMERICAN.

The four-volume "Riverside History of the United States" (Houghton Mifflin; $1.25 net, each) meets, on the whole, better than any other work of equal compass now on the market, the needs of readers who desire a comprehensive and well-written narrative, scholarly enough to command the respect of critics, and detailed enough to furnish particular information on important points, while at the same time sufficiently broad in scope and treatment to afford an intelligent view of the period as a whole. In such a work, novel content would be out of place; nevertheless, by emphasizing economic and social questions, State politics, and the development of the West more than was once customary, the authors have succeeded in giving freshness to the account of a number of episodes. There are differences both in manner and in success, of course, as is to be expected in a work by different hands. Professor Carl L. Becker, who writes on the "Beginning of the American People," is more at home, apparently, on the side of the European influences which affected colonial development than he is on the side of colonial history itself; and his volume, though possessing exceptional literary merit, is not so notable in content. Prof. Allen Johnson's "Union and Democracy," on the other hand, carrying the narrative from the close of the Revolution to the beginning of Jackson's régime, is an admirable sketch of the establishment of Federal Government and administration, the formation of parties and the evolution of their policies, and the peculiar problems, sectional and local, of the early West. Prof. William E. Dodd, the editor of the series, who writes on "Expansion and Conflict," is at his best in treating the economics of slavery, State politics, and sectional issues. The last volume, by Prof. Frederic L. Paxson, entitled "The New Nation," offords a good view of the period since 1865, notwithstanding that it is weak on the constitutional side, and suggests rather than exposes the deeper foundations of contemporary politics. The reading lists appended to the several chapters show praiseworthy discrimination. Most of the maps, unfortunately, are so small and so poorly executed mechanically, as to make their use difficult: a fact the more to be regretted because the maps themselves represent much labor, and in themselves are both fresh and informing.

COLONIAL.

An excellent example of good work along somewhat technical historical lines is to be found in a monograph by Elmer Beecher Russell, entitled "The Review of Colonial Legislation by the King in Council" (Longmans, Green; $1.75). The subject is not likely to be familiar to the average reader of Colonial history, but the prominent place that it occupies among the grievances presented in the Declaration of Independence, where it forms the basis of no less than eight indictments, is sufficient to warrant careful investigation into its character and influence. Though Mr. Russell has not attempted to cover the entire field, he is to be congratulated on the thoroughness of his effort as far as he has gone. He has presented in a detailed and well-organized fashion the results of much scholarly research among records that are only in part available in this country, and has made abundantly clear the general truth that in this respect, as in many others, the Colonists were more or less unconsciously resisting a policy that placed the royal prerogative and the commercial welfare of England ahead of their own political and economic development. How far such development was actually checked by the exercise of the royal right Mr. Russell has not attempted to discover, but he has gone far enough to indicate wherein the grievances of the Colonists lay. That the King deserved to be indicted for "tyranny" because of the exercise of this right is another question.

No small part of the contribution that Mr. Russell has made lies in his presentation of the reasons underlying the royal policy, a policy that appeared to British statesmen as fundamentally necessary for the Empire. That the Colonists should have construed this policy as a severe infringement on liberty seemed incomprehensible to the somewhat opaque British mind. Mr. Russell's essay is rather better written than the average doctor's dissertation, but it is marred here and there by certain usages that are incorrect. The terms "attorney and solicitor" and "attorney and solicitor-generals" are never used for the "attorney and solicitor-general" or the "attorney-general and solicitor-general"; and the title "King's Counsel," here used as if it belonged exclusively to the standing counsel of the Board of Trade, shows that Mr. Russell is unfamiliar with the meaning of the letters K.C. or with the distinguishing British practice of "taking silk." We think, also, that the phrase "legislative review," as an abbreviation of the title of the monograph, is incorrect, in that the Privy Council has never been a legislative body and its acts, whether of review or otherwise, cannot be termed legislative. We call attention to these errors, for they are frequent throughout the work.

HISTORICAL COLLECTIONS.

Some years ago the Illinois State Historical Library wisely placed the editing of its Collections in the hands of a scholar who knows well the history of the Old West, and who can write about it with sympathy and clarity. Again Dr. Clarence W. Alvord (this time in collaboration with Professor Carter, of Miami University) has placed students of Western history under deep obligation for his excellent work in editing Volume X of these Collections (Springfield, 1915). The volume is entitled "The Critical Period, 1763-1765," and forms No. 1 of the British Series. It is the forerunner of four or five others, soon to appear, on the same subject. The documents here presented have been selected with care from the archives of the United States, Canada, England, and France. Those written in the French language are given in the original and also in English, the translations occupying the lower half of the page. As in other publications of the Illinois State Histori

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cal Library, the papers are divided into chapters, "for the purpose of breaking up that monotony so characteristic of such collections of documents." There is a general introduction on "British Illinois, 1763-1778," which is followed by a special introduction on "The British Occupation of the Illinois Country, 1763-1765," a useful study of an interesting phase of Illinois history illustrated by the rich documentary material contained in the volume. A similar study, presumably from the same hand, will be included in each number of the series. The annotations are sufficiently ample to elucidate obscure points and to supply necessary bibliographical and biographical data. The volume is well printed and has a charming view of Kaskaskia, portraits of Sir William Johnson and Gen. Gage, and two facsimile reproductions. Best of all, the index can be relied upon.

The seventh volume of the Proceedings of the Mississippi Valley Historical Association, printed by the Torch Press, is, on the whole, a very creditable publication. It contains at least two or three papers which will place it distinctly above mediocrity. Prof. James Alton James's consideration of "Some Phases of the History of the Northwest, 1783-1786," is especially worthy of note. It will not be surprising, however, if Dr. Clarence W. Alvord's "Critical Analysis of the Work of Reuben Gold Thwaites" should attract more attention than any other paper printed in the volume. Many years before his lamented death in 1913, Dr. Thwaites had earned a national reputation as an earnest and energetic worker in the field of Western history. He not only built up a great historical society and library, but by his unbounded enthusiasm and genius for organization did more than any other man to popularize and make possible the serious study of history in the Middle West. As a writer and as an editor of source materials, Dr. Thwaites was most prolific. In a period embracing somewhat more than a quarter of a century he wrote fifteen books, and edited and published about one hundred and sixty-eight volumes. The task which Professor Alvord undertakes to accomplish is fairly to appraise this remarkable output; in short, to establish, if possible, Dr. Thwaites's standing as an historian. Dr. Thwaites was not a great historian, and produced no work which will find a place with the best historical writing. Mr. Alvord has performed a rather delicate task in a becoming manner, and with the sure touch of one who knows his subject well. Fortunately, Dr. Thwaites accomplished so much in addition to his literary labors, and was so lovable a character, that he will long be remembered and honored.

The Proceedings of the Wisconsin Historical Society for 1914 (Madison, Wis.) contains Mr. Worthington C. Ford's address, "The Treaty of Ghent—and After," delivered at the regular annual meeting of the Society. As editor of the "Writings" of John Quincy Adams—a task which is still in the course of distinguished accomplishment—Mr. Ford can speak with authority on the subject of the Ghent treaty. His paper is notable for two reasons: it is a careful and illuminating study, and it is written with a lightness of touch that is almost sprightly. As was to be expected, he has made the best possible use of the personal incidents of his theme. Two other contributions to the volume are noteworthy: "Henry Hay's Journal from Detroit to the Miami River" (1789-1790), edited with introduction and notes by Milo M. Quaife, and "A Semi-Historical Account of the War of the Winnebago and the Foxes," by Dr. Paul Radin, of the Geological Survey of Canada. Hay's "Journal," which Dr. Quaife has edited in a skilful manner, is both valuable and interesting. The journalist spent several months with the Indians and their French and British partisans on the site of the present city of Fort Wayne, Ind., and the "Journal" reflects, in varied details, the life of this old settlement as it was in the last decade of the eighteenth century. The legend recounted by Dr. Radin is printed in both English and Winnebago. Of local interest are Eben D. Pierce's account of James Reed, a Wisconsin pioneer, and J. H. A. Lacher's pleasing paper on "The Taverns and Stages of Early Wisconsin." Typographically, the volume is not creditable to the State Printer who produced it.

The most important paper in Volume XVIII of the Buffalo Historical Society Publications is an account of the peace congress at Niagara Falls, in 1914, by Frank H. Severance, the editor of the volume. While necessarily based mainly upon newspaper reports, the paper is as full and authoritative an account of what took place as is likely to be written until the various Governments concerned release their diplomatic correspondence on the subject. The texts of such documents as were made public at the time are included. Mr. Severance also contributes a sketch of Ephraim Douglass's peace mission to the Indians at Niagara, in 1783, together with a narrative of Brig.-Gen. Alexander Smith's spectacular performance on the Niagara frontier during the War of 1812. The latter includes letters hitherto unpublished. An interesting addition to the sources of American economic and social history is made in a translation, by H. F. DePuy, of this city, of "Le Pour et le Contre," a rare compilation by Louis Bridel, pastor of the French church at Basle, published at Paris in 1803. The work is especially valuable for its bearing upon the operations of the Holland Land Company in western New York.

The nineteenth volume of the University of Toronto Studies, being a "Review of Historical Publications Relating to Canada" covering the year 1914, is, as the title suggests, a collection of book reviews and notes, and these have been written by a wide range of authorities in their respective fields. The book embraces nearly two hundred and fifty compact pages, comprising upwards of two hundred carefully written themes, varying in length from a few lines to several pages. The material is classified under six different headings, dealing respectively with Canada's relations to the Empire; the general history of Canada; local history, including the history of the various provinces; geography, economics, and statistics; anthropology, ethnology, and folklore; and education, ecclesiastical history, law, and bibliography. Somewhat more than half of the volume is devoted to history, provincial and local, geography, economics, and statistics. The publications reviewed are of a great variety, including books, essays, magazine articles, addresses, Government reports, etc. Although much of the material is chiefly of local interest, there are reviews of numerous volumes well known to all who are familiar with Canadian literature, such as Shortt and Doughty's "Canada and Its Provinces: A History of the Canadian People and Their Institutions," Tupper's "Recollections of Sixty Years in Canada," Douglas's "Lands Forlorn: A Story of an Expedition to Hearne's Coppermine River," and Bryce's "A Short History of the Canadian People." On the whole, it is fair to say that the book constitutes a reader's guide to Canadian literature for the year 1914, rather than a volume of literature in itself. The editorial work was performed by Prof. George M. Wrong, of the department of history in the University of Toronto, H. H. Langdon, librarian of the same institution, and W. Stewart Wallace, lecturer in history in McMaster University, Toronto.

PHILOSOPHY.

PSYCHOLOGY.

Prof. Charles H. Judd's "Psychology of High School Subjects" (Ginn; $1.50) is less a formal treatise upon educational psychology than a critical summary and discussion from the point of view of the psychologist, of the views put forward by supposedly unpsychological persons interested in the teaching of special subjects. The book is thus on the whole a comprehensive and informing discussion of the issues involved in high school pedagogy, stimulating to the reader in spite of a monotony of style and a fondness for sentences in which "one" is followed by "he." On the other hand, it is a question whether the illumination afforded by "the psychologist"—as such—is sufficient to justify his magisterial tone. Surely no special powers are needed to tell us, for instance, that the tendency towards specialization is connected with the natural limitations of human attention. Nor are the reforms called for by Mr. Judd's special type of psychology altogether clear. Granting, for example, that words stand, not for passive associations, but for attitudes of behavior, what does this show but the fact, never forgotten by more discriminating teachers of language, that the meaning of words varies with persons and with situations? And when we learn that the difference between reflective and practical men, or, in Mr. Judd's terms, theoretical and practical men, is that the former are given to word-reactions, the latter to hand-reactions—a sad blow, by the way, to the practical pretensions of the commercial classes—we are compelled to wonder whether psychology has not taken wings and flown away. Apparently "the psychologist" is no longer able to distinguish between a word and a sound, between thinking and mere talking.

Like most psychologists, Mr. Judd appears to think that scientific insight is shown by viewing the mind as a machine-shop in which the several machines run independently of one another. Thus he is constant in warning teachers that (1) mere recognition of an object or mere skill in handling an object, (2) theoretical analysis, and (3) practical application are "different mental processes." Now it is true that the so-called mental processes of students often appear to illustrate this sort of independence—when, for example, a student who is supposed to have mastered the Pythagorean theorem is unable to lay out a tennis court. But the question is whether such practical disability is not a mark of superficial theoretical analysis. And, on the other hand, as against the traditional view that analytic consciousness deserts an operation of which the technique has been

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thoroughly mastered, which Mr. Judd accepts uncritically, we may suggest that the motorist who fails to retain a clear idea of how he controls his machine is doomed to destruction. It is at least as reasonable to suppose that the leisure to enjoy the landscape which comes to the practiced motorist is due to a larger "presence of mind," which enables him to keep in mind both the landscape *and* the machine, as to a transfer of mind from one object to the other. And so far as his skill is wholly unanalytic, one may ask whether it stands for any mental operation whatever.

The point has a broad application to educational theory. From the emphasis laid by the behavior psychologists upon "economy of thought," one must suppose that the purpose of education is to enable the student to get along with as little thinking as possible. Here he is to be trained in manual skill, there in practical application, and only upon special occasions is he to be trained in "analysis." Our query is whether the cultivation of a thoughtful and analytic doing of things is not the beginning and end of all education; and whether, again, this analytic attitude is not the one thing that makes all of the "different mental operations" mental.

And we may further ask whether this is not at bottom the real virtue of the plan of "generalization" which Mr. Judd offers as a remedy for the present confusion of aims in the high-school curriculum. It has been suggested by others that, as a foundation for courses in the sciences, we should have a general course in "science"; Mr. Judd proposes similar courses in mathematics, in which the boundaries of algebra and geometry are to be more or less disregarded, and in language. The idea seems a promising one. When scientific men contend for the sacredness of the boundaries of the sciences, it is proper to remind them that the sciences have been marked out, not by nature, but by man, for human convenience; and that for educational convenience—if a general course in science will afford at once a broader view and a deeper insight—these boundary lines may, if we like, be reconstructed or annulled. Yet it is permissible to ask whether the idea is quite as new as it is even reactionary. When Mr. Judd outlines his general course in language, on p. 245, one is reminded strongly of the traditional function of Latin.

"Psychology and Parenthood," by H. Addington Bruce (Dodd, Mead; $1.25), is a book of 279 pages, filled with wide margins, interesting facts, good advice, and pleasant stories. It is always easy reading, and if ever interest wanes, appeal is made at the critical moment to the marvellous subconscious, with which the author has learned by long practice to conjure with great skill. Mr. Bruce holds that the environment is of much more importance in determining the child's character than is heredity; that unconscious suggestion has much greater influence upon him than the average parent supposes; that genius is the power to appropriate the remarkable resources of the subliminal, and hence is to a surprising degree capable of cultivation; that "intensive child culture" from the age of two or three upwards can often produce results commonly but mistakenly ascribed to extraordinary ability; and that life-long characteristics of an undesirable nature, such as laziness, and even nervous disorders, such as hysteria and phobias of various sorts, are often due to incidental suggestions, to slight physical disabilities, or even to mere habits originating in childhood—all of which may be easily avoided or overcome by proper care on the part of the parents. Though some of Mr. Bruce's conclusions are open to question, his book will be found valuable by many a parent for its excellent practical suggestions, based as they are upon a wide reading of recent psychological and medical literature.

No alterations occur in the eighth edition of William McDougall's "Introduction to Social Psychology" (John W. Luce & Co.), but there is added a supplementary chapter on sex instinct. Sex experience and conduct afford, the author thinks, the most obvious support of his main theory, viz., that human activities are to be traced back to a number of instinctive tendencies which manifest themselves independently of previous experience. He explains why he has not treated of sex instinct heretofore, largely, he says, by reason of the difficulty of so doing, in a book for the general reader. What the author states dogmatically, and without his usual recourse to the "perhaps" "not improbably," or the "doubtless" or "no doubt" (which mean there is some doubt), is generally acceptable enough, though not particularly startling. But when he goes on to refine and suggest, and to imagine hypothetical cases, in the manner of the philosopher or introspecting psychologist, that must be meant for the "general reader," who is credited, supposedly, with a liking for easy and interesting guesswork of the poetic order. One example will do for illustration: "That sex love should thus combine the most purely altruistic [?] with the most ruthlessly egoistic tendency of human nature . . . is [in the man] perhaps sufficiently accounted for by the fact that woman, especially at the age at which she is most strongly attractive to man, resembles in many respects, both mental and physical, the child, the normal object of the parental or protective impulse." Sex energy can be "long-circuited" and "sublimated" in "the service of intellectual, moral, and æsthetic development"; in the normal child, the sex instinct awakens at about the eighth year; but sex enlightenment in youth is dangerous, for "knowledge may be more dangerous than ignorance"; female coyness is essentially bashfulness on occasion of male approach and pursuit; and bashfulness "seems to be essentially the expression of a conflict between the opposed instincts of self-display and self-abasement"—these are samples of opinion and treatment. The author seems to attach a significance to sexual selection that some modern experiments appear to render unjustifiable. The style flows copiously and monotonously under the benignant imminence of an owlish gravity. Some of the pages are narrower than the rest by a quarter of an inch, giving the volume an unfinished appearance as one pages it over.

SOCIOLOGY.

To write a textbook on sociology is a particularly difficult task, partly because the subject is so new that it has as yet few formative traditions, and chiefly because the subject is so amorphous and so lacking in clear-cut outlines that every Outline of it is necessarily in danger of being either too narrow or too vague. Profs. F. W. Blackmar and J. L. Gillin, whose "Outlines of Sociology" has just been published by the Macmillan Company ($2 net), have tried to steer a safe course between these two dangers, and with some success. They have written a book which will give the student a fair idea of the entire field of sociology as it exists to-day, and they have not yielded to the temptation of wandering too far into the other social sciences. Whether they have even crossed the boundary line of these adjacent territories it would be impossible to say, inasmuch as boundary line there is none. The chief criticism to which the book lies open is less a criticism upon Messrs. Blackmar and Gillin than upon the nature of their chosen "science." Their book gives the reader a very excellent idea of sociology; and what is this idea? A rough analysis of this—as of any other good textbook on the subject—will show that sociology consists of two elements: the one, a valuable group of facts borrowed entire from various other studies, such as history, geography, economics, government, psychology, ethics, "comparative religion," etc.; the other, a group of generalizations and laws which sociologists have drawn from these facts. The two groups are of very different degrees of value. The first, although invariably intermingled, in sociological works, with a great mass of commonplace, does at least bring to the reader a good deal of important and fresh information—provided always that he has himself done no work in the various other sciences from which the information has been borrowed. The principal new knowledge to be derived from the second element, on the other hand—the generalizations and laws contributed by the science of sociology—consists very largely in the definition of various technical terms invented by the sociologists themselves. There are, for instance, in the book under review nearly ten chapters in which the average intelligent man or woman, hitherto innocent of sociology, will find practically nothing new, besides the definition and manipulation of a number of terms ending in *ation*. To the reviewer, at least, it seems plain that both sociology in general and Blackmar and Gillin's textbook in particular would be considerably improved if almost a third of their present contents were quietly deleted. For both the book and the "science" have value, that value consisting in the bringing together of wide groups of facts from varied fields, which, though they have instructive bearings on each other, are never actually placed side by side except in the works of the sociologists. From this point of view Professors Blackmar and Gillin have produced an excellent textbook, and one which deserves a wide use in college classes and by private students—provided, indeed, that sociology has to be studied at all.

RELIGION.

In "The Doctrine of God in the Jewish Apocryphal and Apocalyptic Literature" (London: Hunter & Longhurst; 10 shillings net) Dr. Henry J. Wicks offers a valuable handbook for the study of the literature in question. He has gone critically through all the Jewish non-canonical books from the second century B. C. into the first century A. D. and tabulated their ideas, in chronological order as far as possible, concerning God's transcendence, justice, and grace. His volume throws a welcome light on a little-known but very important

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period of Jewish religious development. The general reader will doubtless be surprised to find so much similarity between the conceptions of the works here described and those of the New Testament. Wicks's volume, indeed, furnishes material for bridging over the gulf which has been largely held to separate the two Testaments.

Nothing helps better to clear up our conception of the significance of current religious ideas than such a sketch of their development as is given by Prof. A. C. McGiffert in "The Rise of Modern Religious Ideas" (Macmillan; $1.50). After pointing out briefly the conditions that led to the religious disintegration of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, Dr. McGiffert discusses at greater length the process of the reconstruction of faith as it is exhibited in the great philosophical works and the great scientific theories. He finds the general result of this movement to be the emancipation of religion from the crudities of the church creeds and its exaltation into the region of free and vital convictions. The volume may be recommended as giving an admirable picture of the higher religious thought of the last two or three centuries.

Alongside of the description of philosophical and scientific movements it is desirable to consider how far the religious beliefs of the Christian masses have been affected by the modern progress of knowledge. This question is treated by President-Emeritus George Harris, of Amherst College, in "A Century's Change in Religion" (Houghton Mifflin; $1.25). Dr. Harris finds that, while interest in religion has not been diminished, there is a perceptible movement away from dogma towards spiritual conceptions. In the same line is Rev. Dr. Josiah Strong's "New World Religion" (Doubleday, Page; $1.50), which finds the universal religion in Social Christianity, service to humanity under the guidance of the teaching of Christ. Both these volumes are characterized by reasonableness, reverence, and spirituality.

Among the significant developments of recent religious thought is the disposition in certain quarters to suggest modifications in the conception of the function of the church. In various ways stress is laid on the great work it may perform in the service of humanity by appealing to and fostering moral ideals in daily life. Thus, under the title "In the Service of the King" (Putnam; $1.25), J. B. Dunn gives a "parson's story" of his not unsuccessful efforts to awaken the spirit of Jesus in the minds of persons not particularly gifted or in any way remarkable. Rev. J. S. Ames, in "The Higher Individualism" (Houghton Mifflin; $1.10), points out the social nature of the individual, and the value of religious experience. W. H. Carnegie, Canon of Westminster, in "Democracy and Christian Doctrine" (Macmillan; $1.25), shows how the church may encourage in all grades of life those social virtues that are essential to the permanence of a democratic society; in passing he says a good word for Russian religion. More distinctly P. M. Strayer, in "The Reconstruction of the Church" (Macmillan; $1.50), affirms that the true function of the church is not to preach doctrine, but to teach and train men to love righteousness and to do about doing good. A hint of sympathy with this view may be discovered in J. S. Auerbach's "The Bible and Modern Life" (Harper; 75 cents), which, however, is primarily an exposition of the beauty of Old Testament poetry. It is a useful book notwithstanding some exaggerations.

For younger students of the Bible we have "The Songs, Hymns, and Prayers of the Old Testament" (Scribner; $2.75), by Prof. C. F. Kent; "Geographic Influences in Old Testament Masterpieces" (Boston: Ginn; $1), by Laura H. Wild; and "History of the Hebrews" (Scribner; $1), by President F. K. Sanders. These are carefully written and trustworthy books. In contrast with these we may cite, as an example of extremely regrettable writing, "The Making of Christianity, an Exhibit of Hebrew and Christian Messianic Apocalyptical Philosophy and Literature" (Alton, Ill.: G. P. Clark; $1.25), by Dr. John C. C. Clarke. By treating numbers as symbolical (a fruitful source of vain fancies) and by other discredited methods of interpretation the author constructs a "Hebrew Apocalyptic System" which he represents as the source of Christian ideas, and he has the extraordinary assertion (p. 14) that "no book in the Bible or in the world's literature has exercised or now exercises so immense an influence on human thought, study, and faith as St. John's Apocalypse." It is a misfortune for this interesting, but not mysterious, book to be made into an arsenal of predictions and other cryptic utterances.

SCIENCE.

MATHEMATICS.

The "Elementary Algebra" (Allyn & Bacon; $1 net), by Professors Slaught and Lennes, is an attempt by ripe mathematical scholars to cover the work of the first year in algebra, with due regard to simplicity, the need of plenty of carefully graded exercises, the requirements of college entrance, the traditional order of topics, and the desirability of frequent reviews. The value of the book is enhanced by the device of marking parts to be omitted, without loss of continuity, by any who may desire a shorter course. Another commendable feature is the presence of good portraits of well-known mathematicians, along with some account of them. The pupil will not have to unlearn what he is taught by this book, but it seems a pity that the teaching should take so many pages.

In Reeve and Schorling's "A Review of High-School Mathematics" (University of Chicago Press; 40 cents) we have 64 carefully prepared pages designed for use by pupil and teacher in reviewing the algebra and geometry presented in a three-year high-school course. There are appended some useful suggestions respecting what is called "A Tentative Minimum Course in First-Year Mathematics" and kindred matters.

A glance over the pages of Breslich's "First-Year Mathematics for Secondary Schools" (University of Chicago Press) is sufficient to confirm the encomium passed upon it by the editors of the series of which it forms a part. After indicating both the purposes held in view and the great pains devoted to the carrying out of those purposes in the most effective way, they close their preface with the expression of the conviction that "this new book will contribute to the solution of the problems which confront the mathematical sciences in their efforts to be a vital part of the new course of study in American high schools." When it is added that the editors who sign the preface are Profs. Eliakim H. Moore, George W. Myers, and Charles H. Judd, it might be natural to remark that their praise needs no confirmation; but what we have in mind is the attractiveness of the arrangement, the variety and judiciousness of the illustrative examples, the pleasing typographical appearance, and other features which are easily perceived in turning the pages. One unessential but yet valuable feature is the portraits of illustrious mathematicians, with biographical sketches, interspersed through the volume. A general purpose running through the whole is that of using experimental or inductive geometry as a stepping-stone to the deductive science. In the circumstance that an American mathematician of the preëminent rank of Professor Moore has taken so keen an interest in the pedagogical aspect of his profession—it is to his presidential address before the American Mathematical Society in 1903 that the impulse towards this change in mathematical teaching in the schools is largely due—there is to be found a parallel to the similar activities of Professor Klein, one of the foremost of German mathematicians.

Robbins's "New Plane Geometry" (American Book Co.) is physically and typographically good. Scientifically, didactically, and stylistically it is rather commonplace. It begins by telling the reader that measurement is the concern of the science. A host of old definitions are given that play no rôle in subsequent argument. Vertex is defined in terms of vertex. The obsolete conception of axiom is present, as is also the old false statement as to the relation of whole and part. We are told that a magnitude may be "displaced" by its equal in any process, and that a postulate is "something required to be done." On page 8 we learn that a theorem requires proof, but on page 20 we are told that the most converse theorems are false. Two definitions of limit are given (pp. 96 and 97). Neither of them is in good use. Like any other textbook of geometry, this one contains many statements that are at once correct and clear, and it is rich in exercises.

Palmer and Taylor's "Plane Geometry" (Scott, Foresman; 80 cents), edited by Dr. Myers, is commendable for its subordination of nice logical considerations to teachableness, for its mingling of nicely graded useful applications with an abundance of abstract exercises, and for its perspective, more important and less important matters being presented as such. It is a pleasure to note a similar avoidance of too much logical refinement in the "Plane Geometry" (Holt), by Messrs. Young and Schwartz. Other notable features of this book are the use of two colors in most of the figures, the presence of trigonometric ideas, and the employment of the notion of symmetry in demonstrations. The "School Algebra" (Holt), by Messrs. Rietz, Crathorne, and Taylor, is another illustration of the fact that the rising generation is being well supplied with elementary textbooks by competent scholars. This excellent book, designed to cover the first-year course in the subject, will be followed by a more advanced work by the same authors.

CHEMISTRY.

A revised edition of "First Principles of Chemistry" (Allyn & Bacon), by Brownlee

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and others, has just been issued, eight years after the appearance of the first printing. The revision has resulted in the rewording of some paragraphs, more extended treatment of a few topics—those of nomenclature and calculations especially—and the addition of two chapters on chemical equilibrium and on radioactivity. A new feature of this edition is the inclusion of the portraits of twenty distinguished chemists and well-known discoverers, accompanied by brief biographical notices. The bulk of the book has been increased, altogether, by 107 pages, bringing it up to a total of 526 pages, and making it a rather formidable text for the high-school pupil. The general excellence of the first edition was marred by a number of minor errors, most, if not all, of which persist in the revision. For instance: matter is still defined, three times over, simply as anything that occupies space, with no mention of the far more important general property of weight—though this is, of course, the basis of the discussions of the fundamental laws and of the calculations. Proust's law of definite proportions is still attributed to Dalton; the gram-molecular volume of gases is still given as 22.2, instead of 22.4; and the reaction of steam on copper with production of hydrogen is retained in two separate discussions of reversible reactions. That such mistakes as these have escaped the attention of the authors and, presumably, of most of the many teachers who have used this book, seems to indicate a discouraging lack of scientific acumen on the part of a large number of teachers of chemistry in the high school.

"Chemical Calculations" (D. Van Nostrand & Co.; $2 net), by R. Harman Ashley, is a well-made book of 276 pages containing a fairly complete discussion of the chief applications of arithmetic and algebra in chemistry. Its distinguishing feature, and that which accounts for its unusual bulk, is the very large number of problems which are offered for exercise. Of these there are 516, besides many others which are worked out in illustration of the various types of calculation. There are no tables of logarithms, molecular weights, etc., and for most of the necessary data the reader is referred to Van Nostrand's Chemical Annual; the one notable exception being the tabulated information about sulphuric acid which occupies most of the brief Appendix.

"A Practical Elementary Chemistry" (Scribner), by B. W. McFarland, is written in the interests of a system of teaching which the author has practiced in the New Haven High School for about ten years and which "has certainly produced remarkable results." This method "is built entirely upon an exhaustive study of the laboratory work, not as illustrating the statements made in the descriptive text, but as the foundation of the whole subject." The book is divided into four parts: Laboratory Work, containing forty-seven Exercises in which a large number of well-chosen experiments are given; Fundamental Ideas, a brief summary of definitions, laws, and theories considered necessary for pupils who are not going to college; More Advanced Theory, supplying the additional material for college preparation, and Descriptive, about 200 pages of the usual descriptive text found in elementary chemistries. The work begins in the laboratory; with the accompanying recitations "Part II of the book is taken up, and very intense drill is given on the meanings and uses of symbols, formulas, and equations." No lessons are assigned in the descriptive part, this being used only for reference in the preparation of written reports and exercises. In the recitations "the pupil is required to express himself very exactly, and with a speed that assures the teacher at once of the pupil's absolute mastery of the subject." One of the topics on which especial stress is laid is writing equations showing the seven different ways of forming the salts of oxygen acids, and "this drill should be so thorough that the pupil is enabled to complete the seven equations in one and one-half minute." "Modern ideas of efficiency are involved in every point of the course: *i. e.*, how to get the desired results in the shortest time, with the least effort." The frequent recurrence of the word "drill" in the author's Suggestions to Teachers appears to indicate the keynote of his "system." "Remarkable results" in the form of letter-perfect recitations can undoubtedly be obtained by a competent drill-master by this or almost any other method; but whether the pupil gains the scientific point of view, which, after all, is the important thing, will depend in this method more than in others on the attitude of the teacher; the text will give little help in this direction. We cannot agree with the author that "This course puts into the hands of the pupil a book which is almost as good as a private teacher at his side." The book and the method seem reactionary, and recall Professor Barker's textbook published in 1870, in which the theoretical and the descriptive matter were in two separate, water-tight compartments, and the large type of the Theory was to be committed to memory. Some students of chemistry in the seventies will remember the book and the "remarkable results" which were obtained by it.

"Chemistry of Familiar Things" (Lippincott; $1.75 net), by Samuel S. Sadtler, "has been written because of a demand for an insight into chemistry by those whose reading has been directed in other channels." The author feels that chemistry has hitherto appealed to few general readers, but he detects now "signs of an awakening as to the interesting possibility of science considered broadly, and there is no doubt in the mind of the writer that chemistry can furnish interesting subject-matter for general consideration." As a matter of fact, there has always been a wide popular interest in science, and books dealing with scientific subjects in a sufficiently simple manner and an attractive style have never failed to find a large audience. Such a book was Joyce's "Scientific Dialogues," written in 1800, and many readers remember the fascinating volumes of Tyndall "On Sound," "Heat," and "Light," as well as a number of other books which put the layman in touch with interesting facts and speculations in biology, geology, etc. In chemistry we have Liebig's extraordinarily popular "Familiar Letters on Chemistry," which appeared in 1844; Johnston's "Chemistry of Common Life," dating from 1854; "Religion and Chemistry," by Prof. J. P. Cooke (1864), and, to mention only one or two of the more recent publications in this field, Lassar-Cohn's "Chemistry in Daily Life" and Kennedy Duncan's books and magazine articles. This latest contribution to literature of science for the general reader, which begins with an enumeration of substances formed by insects, ranges from the chemistry of the earth's evolution to radium. Air, Water, Metals, Rocks, Soil, Foods, Textiles, and Physiological Chemistry are treated at some length, while Lighting, Heating, Fermentation, Soaps, Leather, Rubber, and Glass are also discussed. A brief outline of elementary chemistry is given in the first chapter "to enable the reader to understand and appreciate the sequel." The book, as is seen from this list of titles, presents a large amount of information, most of which falls well enough under the head of chemistry. The author is a chemist of wide experience, and from this he draws a number of interesting and pertinent observations. Unfortunately, the manner of presentation is not particularly attractive, and many sentences are so badly worded that they are vague or positively misleading. For example: The "elaboration of chemicals *from* the fungi and bacteria, such as alcohol and carbon dioxide *from* yeasts," etc. (The italics are ours.) "On a clear day the hot flue gases are *very much lighter* and the weight of the atmosphere pushing at the grate bars is notably greater than at the top of the chimney." "Expenditure of mechanical forces always results in a definite amount of heat." "For heat to move best in water or air, it must rise and circulate." One is in doubt in a number of instances whether the author really meant to say what he has printed: "It [the atom] is thought by some to be made up of electrical vibrations." "The more enlightened people are, the more heat they need for comfort in countries that have winter." "Because a thing happens it can generally be explained." "It [dew] condenses on grass, leaves, and other objects, because of the greater prevalence of moisture close to the ground." "In winter the heated air of the houses is too dry, *especially in the Northwest.*" He certainly did not intend to define celluloid as "a vulcanized fibre made by the action of zinc chloride on paper" (p. 27).

PHYSICS.

Prof. N. C. Riggs has revised and rewritten the well-known textbook "Hancock's Applied Mechanics for Engineers" (Macmillan; $2.40). In this revised edition, the general treatment and arrangement have been retained. The most important changes to be noted are the transfer of the chapter on the dynamics of a rigid body to a later position, the increased use of graphical methods, and the addition of many new problems. The text was a popular one as it left the hands of Professor Hancock, and it has been improved in this edition.

Most of the books by Prof. Harry C. Jones are irritating to the reviewer for the reason that their good qualities are marred by carelessness of thought and style. This carelessness is particularly inexcusable in "Electrical Nature of Matter and Radioactivity," third edition (Van Nostrand; $2 net). A book on such a topic which runs into three editions has, presumably, good qualities, and this popularity should have induced the author to correct misprints, mistakes in grammar, and false statements, and to revise with enough care to bring facts up to date. For example, on page 3 we find *posivitely* for positively; on pages 188 and 189, *Allan* for Allen; on page 23, "What we know *is changes* in energy"; page 29, "The elements have their own . . . characteristic *spectrum,*" and the statement following is not a sentence at all. As errors we may note the following: On page 30: "J. J. Thomson, to whom we owe the entire electron conception"; as a curious piece of rea-

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soning, Professor Jones states that Ostwald proved "Matter, then, is a pure hypothesis, and energy is the only reality," and yet the thesis of this book is that electricity is an entity, and, one would suppose, a reality. It is quite evident that Professor Jones does not consider recent work important, since there are only meagre notices of results since 1909, the date of the second edition. Now it is well known that parts of the subject have been almost entirely changed since then. For example, recent work on the positive rays is not mentioned, the discoveries on the Brownian movements are omitted, as is also Professor Millikan's work. The index is still quite inadequate, as a cursory glance shows many omissions. It is a pity that Professor Jones, who has many of the qualities of a good writer, should treat his readers with such lazy disrespect.

BIOLOGY.

A well-grounded complaint is frequently made that in all our schools too many subjects are taught, and that this congestion crowds out from the course very important old-fashioned matters, such as correct spelling, accurate mental arithmetic, sound geography, and the like. The head of the biological department in the DeWitt Clinton High School of New York city, Mr. George W. Hunter, has felt this want, and has endeavored to meet it by preparing a handbook which is made up of practical problems in simple applied science. ("A Civic Biology," by George William Hunter; American Book Co.). Mr. Hunter has availed himself of the coöperation of many of his associates, and has constructed a synthetic manual of very wide range. Naturally, in a treatise made up, as this one is, of a myriad fragments taken from various sources, specialists can find errors. But in judging such a work, one must ask whether, on the whole, it serves its purpose without leading the pupil much astray. The author begins by showing the relations of plants and animals to their surroundings and then takes up in proper sequence their relations to one another, their appropriation of food, their reproduction, their diseases, the preservation of health, and the bearing of all this upon the best means of obtaining civic welfare. A careful perusal of the book shows comparatively few slips, and none of serious importance. The book is made for high-school pupils, but it can be read or seriously studied by all who wish to inform themselves as to the numberless points where modern biology touches civic betterment. It is a far cry from the simple plant-cell and its simple life to the ancestry of Jonathan Edwards and the doctrine of Mendelism, but the long path between them lies in this little book. A few of the illustrations need more explanatory text to make them plain.

ANTHROPOLOGY.

The work done last year by expeditions of the Smithsonian Institution was almost all of the regular collecting type, with, however, a gratifying increase of valuable observation in the field. This is a phase which must soon become of prime importance. Instead of forever adding to the great collections in museums, we need more than anything else careful, thorough observations on the life histories of organisms, on the embryology, the soft colors, and parts which change character in dried or spirit specimens. The most interesting title in the publication is the illustrated account of the exhibits, at the Panama-California Exposition, of the natural history of man. Among many separate exhibits is a series of life-sized direct casts showing human development from the ovum onward of the white American, the Indian, and the negro. These have required two years and a half of constant labor. The later series show fifteen stages, from a day or two after birth to the oldest persons who could be found. Long trips were made when trustworthy news of a centenarian was received. In the case of the earliest, it was necessary in some cases to locate a likely source and then to wait until the infant was born. Restorations of all the remains of primitive man and casts of types of all races of mankind complete this excellent contribution to a subject of the keenest interest to us all.

ZOOLOGY.

For more than fifteen years Prof. Charles M. Child has been engaged in original work connected with some of the most perplexing problems in the life of organisms. He has endeavored to study in the laboratory some matters which hitherto have been largely treated by speculation without experiment. In "Senescence and Rejuvenescence" (University of Chicago Press) he has fairly stated the more important speculations, and he shows the bearing of these upon the question of life in its wide sense. He touches lightly upon the vexed question of vitalism, a discussion which goes back to Aristotle, but which is always coming up in a fresh and unexpected guise, and he discusses the various substitutes for a vital principle which have been suggested. These theories are taken up without prejudice; each receives its proper value and is assigned to its proper place. This prepares the way for a lucid presentation of the Life-Cycle in general, and thus the reader is brought to the major topics of Senescence, growing old, and Rejuvenescence, growing young. Not all readers will feel wholly satisfied with the author's definition of growth or of individuation, but he has done about as well, perhaps, as any one could. Having laid these matters aside, he approaches his laboratory study of susceptibility in one of the lower animals, Planaria, which affords convenient material for experimentation. Here we are brought face to face with the marvel of reconstitution, and the associated matters of certain forms of reproduction. The part which nutrition, or the lack of it, plays in the life of the organism is dealt with experimentally and, on the whole, very satisfactorily. From his experiments, Professor Child concludes that senescence is associated with the productive and progressive phases, and rejuvenescence with the reductive and regressive phases of the life cycle. At first this appears paradoxical, but a careful examination of the reasoning which has led up to the conclusion shows that every step has been taken upon the solid footing of careful experimenting. Although this work is by a zoologist, it is plain that it is investigation by one who also knows plants well. The author is exceedingly modest in referring to his invasion of contiguous fields, but a candid student can see that he is sure of his ground. The volume is enriched by discriminating references to the literature of the subject placed at the end of the sections, and by a very copious index.

In "The Investigation of Mind in Animals" (Putnam; 90 cents), by E. M. Smith, the author makes but little pretence at discussion or abstract theorizing. He limits himself to the presentation of the modes of procedure employed by researchers in animal psychology. Still, there is sufficient comment to reveal the compiler's attitude and to enable the lay reader to compare the general methods and results of the chief workers in this field. In a recent article on evolution Professor Osborn's opening words are as follows: "In the last thirty years two biologies have been developing. The first is the biology of the garden, the seed pan, the incubator, and the breeding-pen. The second is the biology of the field zoölogist, of the field botanist, of the paleontologist." If "experimental cage" had been added to the first of these categories, the work of the present volume would there find its place. The seven chapters deal respectively with Protozoan Behavior, Retentiveness: Habit-Formation, Associative Memory and Sensory Discrimination, Instinct, Homing, Imitation, and The Evidence for Intelligence and for Ideas. A rapid review of the entire book leaves one with a decided feeling of disappointment. There is so little of certainty, after so enormous an amount of experimental research in a field which is of the greatest importance as leading up to an adequate understanding of our own psychology. These short quotations from the first chapter will illustrate the general vagueness to which I have reference: "There is, therefore, no clear proof of the occurrence of any phenomenon requiring for its explanation the presence of consciousness in the Protozoa. Nor is there any evidence to show that these simple creatures are able to profit by experience in any but the most transient manner. . . . Nevertheless, though the available evidence does not support a tropistic interpretation of the behavior of the Protozoa, it is by no means necessary to refuse it a subordinate place as presenting a more or less true account of certain phenomena when regarded in isolation. . . . To sum up, though the activities of unicellular organisms reveal no irrefragable proof of the presence of mind, a study of their conduct suffices to exhibit at least a fundamental resemblance to so-called 'intelligent' behavior." Upon so insecure a foundation one proceeds to the consideration of the psychology of higher animals with no great amount of credulity. The chapter on imitation is the best, and that on homing the least satisfactory. The fact that migration is not touched upon eliminates whatever of value might be found in the latter. This hopeless groping for some definite foothold is finally illustrated by this illuminating paragraph: "Reviewing our evidence, we may say that it is by no means disproved that animals are intelligent and have 'ideas,' but . . . no test as yet applied completely excludes the possibility that animal learning is anything more than a process of association on the preceptuo-motor level. The one point that clearly emerges is the need for new methods of inquiry." After this summary of controlled experiments, our minds turn with relief to Henri Fabre, and with renewed interest to Bergson.

To students of zoölogy, and especially of evolution, one of the most welcome contributions of the year will be "The Alligator and Its Allies" (Putnam; $2.50 net), by Dr. Albert M. Reese. The publishers even express the hope that it has an "assumed appeal for

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the layman interested in natural history." But this can hardly be said to be the case, even in the first chapter, which treats of the biology of the alligator. The account is too categorical, too lacking in color and force of presentation, to be far removed from text-book diction. In its intended field it is admirable. Within a volume of convenient size we find the more important known facts concerning the biology, anatomy, and development of the American alligator. The author has made three trips to the Everglades and swamps of Florida in search of these reptiles and their nests. He has brought to bear the skill of an embryologist, and has carefully reviewed the literature of his thesis, and has not hesitated to draw upon this whenever it seemed worthy. The biology rests almost wholly on the author's own observations, and gives an excellent idea of the wild life of these creatures, their breeding habits, and economic value. Thirteen feet is apparently the maximum size, but, instead of being a creature of extremely slow growth, an alligator can attain a length of ten feet in as many years. The maternal care of the female for her offspring is somewhat discounted, although it is thought that she remains near, and when warned by the squeaking of the yet unhatched 'gatorlings, returns and uncovers the eggs, to enable the little fellows to escape from under the heavy weight of the nest débris. So great has been the slaughter of alligators in our Gulf States that thirteen years ago it was estimated that 80 per cent. had been exterminated. At present, although the demand for skins is greater than ever, no legislative action seems to have been taken. The destructive increase of cane rats and muskrats is, perhaps, due to the disappearance of these great reptiles. The detailed descriptions of the skeleton, and of the digestive, urogenital, respiratory, and vascular systems, and of the embryology are all the work of the author. The entire chapter on the musculature and part of that on the nervous system are translated from Bronn's "Thierreich." It was found very difficult to obtain the early stages of embryos, as these were well advanced, even at the moment of deposition of the eggs. Only by shooting laying alligators could these stages be obtained. The most regretted lack is the absence of all comparative comment, the phase of application which would have added so much to this research. An abundance of excellent drawings and photographs and a good bibliography and index give additional value and completeness to the book.

GEOLOGY.

Would that some of the early fathers of the glacial theory—Playfair, Charpentier, Agassiz—could return to us for an inspection of Monograph LIII of the United States Geological Survey, on "The Pleiocene of Indiana and Michigan and the History of the Great Lakes," by Leverett and Taylor, expert specialists both. The volume is a marvel of interpretation, summarizing the work of many years, and showing in great detail the features due to the glacial lobes that occupied the troughs of Lakes Erie, Huron, and Michigan, in so far as they overlapped on the intermediate States above named. The most significant features of the region are of two kinds: terminal moraines, formed during the ice retreat; and shore lines and outlet channels of proglacial lakes. The moraines are arranged in festoons around the retreating ice-lobe margins, in accordance with the principle announced by Chamberlin nearly forty years ago. The proglacial lakes resulted from the gentle northeastward slope of a considerable part of the district, which caused the retreating ice-lobes to obstruct the drainage of the surface that they evacuated. The ingenuity with which the history of the lakes and their changing outlets is deciphered is truly admirable.

"Mountains, their Origin, Growth, and Decay" (Van Nostrand; $4) is the last work of the late Prof. James Geikie of the University of Edinburgh, whose death occurred last year. The volume deals, as the author says, "almost exclusively with the borderland of Geology and Geography"; it might be expected to lean more to the latter than to the former science, as it is dedicated to the Council of the Royal Scottish Geographical Society, but as a matter of fact it is much more taken up with geological problems of structure, deformation, and denudation, than with geographical problems of form and appearance; it thus illustrates once more how difficult it is for a geologist to cross the border which separates his well-matured science from its much less matured neighbor. The book has twelve chapters: for some reason that is not apparent eleven of them are entitled Original or Tectonic Mountains, while only the final chapter has a new heading, Subsequent or Relict Mountains. The first two chapters are concerned with young volcanic cones and dissected volcanic cones; the third with pseudo-mountains such as moraines and sand dunes; the fourth and tenth chapters deal rather lightly with theories of deformation; chapters five to eight are occupied with the Alps; chapter nine with ancient, worn-down mountains of Europe; chapter eleven treats of ocean "deeps" as the converse of mountains; and chapter twelve of relict mountains, or those which are left in relief by the excavation of valleys beneath an even surface of any structure. The distinction here made between original and relict mountains is artificial; insufficient attention is given to the large and growing class of mountains that, partly worn down after their deformation, are then uplifted again and thus enter a new cycle of erosion. Curiously enough, glacial erosion, a highly important process in the sculpture of many lofty ranges, is hardly mentioned. The book contains nearly 80 fine photographic plates, many of which are insufficiently related to the text; 57 figures, a glossary of 15 pages, and a 9-page index.

GEOGRAPHY.

The third Annual Report of the Argentine Geographico-Military Institute, for 1914, indicates progress in several lines of work, from measurement of baselines and geodetic triangulation to the publication of completed map sheets. The far southern republic thus promises to contribute to the international map of the world on the scale of 1:1,000,000, on the plan of Penck of Berlin, as well as to furnish its own people with detailed maps of their country on scales of 1:100,000 and 1:25,000. A significant feature of the present report is a translation of a monograph by Haardt von Hartenthurn, of Vienna, on the organization of the topographical bureaus of the European countries.

An interesting and instructive work in Sir Charles Lucas's well-known series covering the historical geography of the British Dominions is the second part of Volume IV, entitled "Historical Geography of South Africa" (Oxford University Press), which embraces the period from 1895 to the outbreak of the present European war. An account of the political and social conditions of the South African Republic in 1895 is contained in the first chapter, in which the author shows that, at the end of that year, the situation was such that "revolution was in the course of nature." Then follows a discussion of the Jameson Raid and of events leading up to the outbreak of the South African War. The latter receives a detailed and illuminating discussion in three chapters, occupying three hundred pages of the slightly less than five hundred pages of text proper. The last two chapters are devoted respectively to reconstruction and union, and a general summary. The text is interspersed with a considerable number of maps and drawings which lend an added interest for the reader, and there is, at the end of the volume, a bibliography, including the books and other publications relating to South Africa. The appendix contains the texts of the Pretoria and London Conventions of 1881 and 1884, the Middelburg Terms offered by Lord Kitchener to Gen. Botha of March, 1902, and the Terms of the Vereeniging Treaty of May 31, 1902. A table of the dates of the principal events in the later history of South Africa serves as a convenient guide to the student or general reader, both of whose interests seem to have been kept well in mind by the author.

A small book of 180 pages on "Studies in Carto-Bibliography," by Sir H. G. Fordham (Oxford University Press), contains a number of essays, reprinted from the transactions of various societies, and revised, as originally written, with enthusiasm in the fulness of knowledge, concerning early road-books, county maps, and atlases of Great Britain and France. It can appeal but little to the great body of readers, but it is a choice morsel for the antiquarian whose tastes lead him along highways and byways. Among its chapters are Index List of the Maps of Hertfordshire, 1579-1900, John Cary, Engraver, Mapseller, and Globe-maker, The Cartography of the Provinces of France, 1570-1757, Descriptive List of the Maps of the Great Level of the Fens, 1604-1900, and Specimens of Full and Abridged Descriptions of Maps of Various Dates. High praise is given to the printed catalogue of atlases issued by our Library of Congress. The book closes with a five-page bibliography and a six-page index.

BOTANY.

One of the laboratory handbooks which were introduced in 1901 has now, in its third revision, brought its subjects again quite up to date. "Methods in Plant Histology" (University of Chicago Press; $2.25 net), by Charles J. Chamberlain, may be fairly said to have kept abreast of the times from the first. It is clear in its directions, and is sufficiently full to enable even the student who works by himself to become acquainted with the finer points in modern histological technique. Part one is devoted to a description of apparatus and other appliances, and to the approved methods of cutting and staining; part two gives, with sufficient details, directions for attacking special problems in the structure of the lower and the higher plants.

In 1838, J. C. Loudon published an illustrated work on the trees and shrubs of the British

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Isles, which contained, in addition to its accurate descriptions, a large number of classical citations and much interesting folk-lore. Loudon's "Arboretum et Fruticetum Britannicum" had four volumes of text and four of admirable plates. Many of the plates gave the winter-state of the plants, thus enabling the landscape architect and the amateur planter to know how the elements at their command would look when they were stripped of their foliage. In short, the volumes were a treasure in city as well as in country houses, and they have maintained their popularity even down to the present day. But it is plain that such a treatise must require frequent revision to keep it abreast of the times. In place of such revisions there have been many attempts to construct treatises covering a part or a whole of the same ground. One of the latest is "Trees and Shrubs Hardy in the British Isles," by W. J. Bean, assistant curator Royal Botanic Gardens, Kew, two volumes (Dutton; $15). The descriptions are arranged conveniently, the genera in alphabetical order, and likewise the species, placed under each genus. One hundred pages are devoted to plain directions concerning the care of woody plants and their selection for special localities. All of the advice is safe and sound, and may be unhesitatingly followed for our Eastern and Northern States. The volumes make a capital supplement to the older work of Loudon, bringing the specific descriptions down to the latest possible moment; they also contain a good account of the recent acquisitions from China. The plants newly introduced by Mr. Ernest Henry Wilson are described as far as has been possible, which fact gives to the work a high value for arboriculturists. It should be noted that the treatise is very conservative, but it is none the worse for that.

HORTICULTURE AND FARMING.

In "Continuous Bloom in America" (Scribner; $2 net) Louise Shelton tells us where to sow annuals and perennials, how to lay out artistic beds with harmonious and symmetrical patterns, and furnishes cultural directions for a garden of continuous blooms from early spring to late autumn. Not the least important part of the book is the planting charts, by which one may visualize the effects sought after. These charts are facsimiles of successful plantings, but in attempting to follow the plans, says the author, "successful results will be at last obtained only when the gardener has learned the knack of crowding without detriment to the plants." The author also has advice for those who would specialize in spring and autumn displays. Her suggestions are practical, and she avoids technical language. There are numerous illustrations of famous American gardens.

Those of us whose school days date too far back to include the joys of "school gardens" and agricultural studies can recall our favorite "motion song" in the primary grade. It ran like this:

Shall I show you how the farmer
Shall I show you how the farmer
Shall I show you how the farmer
Sows his barley and wheat?

With the response:

O 'tis so, so, that the farmer
O 'tis so, so, that the farmer
O 'tis so, so, that the farmer
Sows his barley and wheat.

As the books "for students who desire a practical working knowledge of the essentials of agriculture" pile up on the reviewer's desk, it seems to him as if all the agricultural college faculties were in line with "Shall I show you how the farmer?" The "so, so" of the farmer's activities is simply and completely set forth in Prof. Henry Jackson Waters's "Essentials of Agriculture" (Ginn; $1.25 net). Beginning with a general chapter on The New Agriculture, the book proceeds to tell in detail how soil should be managed, its properties utilized, its fertility maintained, and how upon soils thus understood and handled profitable crops may be grown and improved stock raised. Particular information as to the various sorts of crops—small grains, fibre crops, grasses, legumes, forage crops, roots and tubers, sugar and tobacco, fruit—is given briefly but so definitely as to be of real value. Of course, the numerous pests of garden and orchard and the sprays that control them receive their share of attention. There are also two closing chapters of value on Business Aspects of Farming and Mechanical Power for the Farm. The appendix includes, besides several score cards, a practical spray schedule and table of common farm needs. Altogether, this is a plain, practical handbook, containing a remarkable amount of interesting and valuable farm lore.

NEUROLOGY.

In "Old Nerves for New" (Little, Brown), Mr. Arthur A. Carey deals with a subject of vital importance to most Americans, namely, the effect of the mental attitude upon the nervous system, and the relation of the mind to the body. He shows a method by which, with proper application, self-control can be achieved, beginning with simple physical movements for the relaxation of contracted nerves and muscles. With the power to relax, he asserts, comes the power to direct the physical and mental forces into channels leading to broader, more efficient, and happier living. He treats particularly of the effect of the emotions upon the health, gives suggestions for self-criticism, self-understanding, and self-correction, and advises how to help others to attain self-control. His discussions are at times lengthy; they deal with such vital topics as love, hate, fear, selfishness, pride, and other emotions which strike to the roots of human nature. It is to be regretted that throughout the volume his sound reasoning and sometimes his scientific work are weakened by innumerable Scriptural allusions and quotations, for surely right thinking, right living, and freedom from what Christian Scientists call "error," and psychologists term self-hypnosis, should not be limited to Christians and Caucasians, but should belong to all humanity. But one must have all respect for the author's ardent desire to aid nervous sufferers and for the profound religious spirit of the work. The influence upon the author of the teachings of Annie Payson Call, to whom the book is dedicated, is manifest throughout. Could each of us but follow the suggestions Mr. Carey sets forth, and exchange the worn and dulled old nerves for bright new ones, the physical millennium would be near at hand.

LIP-READING.

Though lip-reading has been taught to deaf children for many years past, there have been comparatively few adults who have attempted to learn it, perhaps because of the scarcity of teachers and the scant literature in the subject. It is with much satisfaction therefore that we call attention to a thorough and comprehensive volume by Martha E. Bruhn—"The Müller-Walle Method of Lip-Reading" (Lynn, Mass.: Thomas P. Nichols & Son; $2). Miss Bruhn studied in Hamburg, under the man whose methods she has adapted to English. In the first chapter on the origin of instruction in lip-reading, she says that for those who lose their hearing after learning to speak, the external characteristics of speech are the essential points. In natural conversation, when lip movements are not exaggerated, the adult deaf person is able to grasp the meaning of a sentence as a whole without a slow pronunciation of each word. With the idea of making the acquisition of the ability to read lips as easy and quick as possible, thirty lessons are arranged, in each of which Miss Bruhn introduces some new sound or combination of sounds, makes suggestions for self-help by practice with a mirror, and furnishes a short story to be read to the deaf pupil. These phrases give the story in a series of questions and answers, and introduce a variety of synonymous terms and colloquialisms in common use. The spirit of the book is admirable, and in its analysis of the points to be noted by deaf persons who desire to read the lips it is invaluable. It shows that lip-reading is an art to be acquired only by most patient perseverance, but that it may be achieved by all who practice diligently, according to the method described.

BUSINESS MANAGEMENT.

Prof. Hugo Münsterberg's "Business Psychology" (La Salle Extension University) opens with a lengthy sermon to the business man on the importance of consulting the expert psychologist, and closes with a reproduction of the not very striking discoveries recorded in his "Psychology and Business Efficiency." The rest of the book is filled with psychological commonplace, illustrated by reference to "the customer" and "the workman," where any other human being would serve as well, and with the commonplace of business experience. Surely no special training in psychology is needed to discover that (*e. g.*) a blue gown is set off by a yellow background, that the merchant must make himself as well as his goods pleasing to his customer, or that it is unwise to distract the attention of a customer who is about to decide in favor of certain goods. Altogether, the shrewd reader is likely to find the special illumination afforded by "business psychology" in strange contrast to its sacerdotal pretensions, and to conclude that, in practical matters, psychology has little to say that might not be discovered by unspecialized intelligence. Professor Münsterberg points to the difference between the farmer's forecast of the weather and the scientific predictions of the weather reports. But the fact remains that the psychologist is (at least) as little able to forecast the commercial weather as any business man; and when it comes to deciding how a given individual will respond to a given offer, the psychologist can say as little as any one else. Professor Münsterberg's observations of the conditions of efficiency are often interesting, but they imply no special apparatus of thought.

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Among the recent additions to a growing literature is "Advertising—Its Principles and Practice" (New York: The Ronald Press; $4). The book is the work of four collaborators, Harry Tipper, Harry L. Hollingworth, George Burton Hotchkiss, and Frank Alvah Parsons. It is an indication of the completeness with which the subject is treated that of these four authors two are professional advertising men, one is a professor of psychology, and one the president of an art school. There can scarcely be an aspect of this vigorous business—or profession—which is not presented and analyzed in a manner not only satisfying to the expert, but most engaging to the ordinary reader. One encounters old friends among the many illustrations, which show the advertisements exactly as they are—with no names omitted as in some books in this field. And it is interesting to see the displays of the mightiest advertisers severely criticised, their errors plainly set before our eyes. Some of the pictures are excellent reproductions in color. One might look for a lack of unity where so many minds have joined in the task, but no such fault is to be found.

BIBLIOGRAPHY.

Although Axel Moth's "Technical Terms Used in Bibliographies and by the Book and Printing Trades" (Boston Book Company; $2.25 net) possesses a value all its own, the purchaser should understand that the volume, one of the Useful Reference series, forms a supplement to F. K. Walter's "Abbreviations and Technical Terms Used in Book Catalogues and Bibliographies" (Boston, 1912). The compiler states in a brief prefatory note that the present publication is part of a more extensive work, as yet unpublished. With few exceptions, we are informed, terms which have already found a place in Mr. Walter's work have not been included. Mr. Moth has given us an excellent list of technical terms; those in English have the Danish, Dutch, French, German, Italian, Spanish, and Swedish equivalents. The foreign terms are accompanied by English definitions. Those in Latin have been gathered by Mr. Walter, and they supplement the list appearing in his "Abbreviations and Technical Terms." Judged as a continuation of Mr. Walter's book—and it pretends to be nothing more—Mr. Moth's compilation is admirable. Not only will it be of service to the expert bibliographer and to those engaged in the printing trades, but it will likewise be a distinct aid to the collector of books in assisting him to solve the mysteries of catalogues and other publications printed in languages with which he is wholly or in a large measure unfamiliar.

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